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ABSTRACT

Intended to provide teachers, students, and the community with general information on the United Nations (UN), this kit contains a compilation of brochures, booklets, fact sheets, resource lists, and press releases on a variety of UN-related topics. The first three booklets, "United Nations Today-1984" (suggestions for speakers), "United Nations Day 24 October," "The United Nations at Forty," and "Report of the Secretary-General on the Work of the Organization" provide an overview based on main points made in annual reports of the organization by Secretary-General Javier Perez de Cuellar. "Come to the UN...It's Your World" provides information for those planning to tour the UN. Four press releases focus on UN headquarters, member states of the United Nations, membership of principal UN organs in 1984, and UN conferences and special observances. Topical issues materials include three booklets, "Human Rights: 50 Questions and Answers about Human Rights and United Nations Activities to Promote Them," "Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Final Authorized Text," and "United Nations Image and Reality: Questions and Answers about Management, Finance, and People." A wall chart containing maps and information about the UN and Namibia precedes a fact sheet listing UN information materials on disarmament (including a list of libraries and information centers receiving UN publications), a list of books and pamphlets about the UN, and information on inquiries that are frequently addressed to the UN Public Inquiries Unit. (LH)

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UNITED NATIONS GENERAL INFORMATION KIT

OVERVIEW MATERIALS

I. UNITED NATIONS TODAY--1984. (SUGGESTIONS FOR SPEAKERS). UNITED NATIONS DAY 24 OCTOBER

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III. REPORT OF THE SECRETARY-GENERAL ON THE WORK OF THE ORGANIZATION, 1984 (JAVIER PEREZ DE CUELLAR).

IV. BROCHURE: COME TO THE UN...IT'S YOUR WORLD

V. SELECTED UNITED NATIONS PRESS RELEASES

- United Nations Headquarters
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TOPICAL ISSUES MATERIALS

I. HUMAN RIGHTS: 50 QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS ABOUT HUMAN RIGHTS AND UNITED NATIONS ACTIVITIES TO PROMOTE THEM.

II. UNIVERSAL DECLARATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS. FINAL AUTHORIZED TEXT.

III. UNITED NATIONS IMAGE AND REALITY: QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS ABOUT MANAGEMENT, FINANCE, AND PEOPLE.

IV. UNITED NATIONS AND NAMIBIA (WALL CHART).

- To the Student......
- To the Teacher......

UNITED NATIONS RESOURCES

I. UNITED NATIONS INFORMATION MATERIALS ON DISARMAMENT. FACT SHEET No. 29. (Including a list of Libraries and Information Centres Receiving UN Publications).

II. BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS ABOUT THE UNITED NATIONS

III. INFORMATION ON INQUIRIES THAT ARE FREQUENTLY ADDRESSED TO THE PUBLIC INQUIRIES UNIT.

IV. UNITED NATIONS AUDIO AND VISUAL MATERIALS

V. BROCHURE: CALENDAR, FLAGS, AND SOURVENIR ITEMS AND BASIC EDUCATIONAL MATERIALS FROM THE UNITED NATIONS.

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* Two additional components of the United Nations General Information Kit, a UN System poster and a Descriptive Map of the UN have not been included in this document due to reproducibility problems.

OVERVIEW MATERIALS

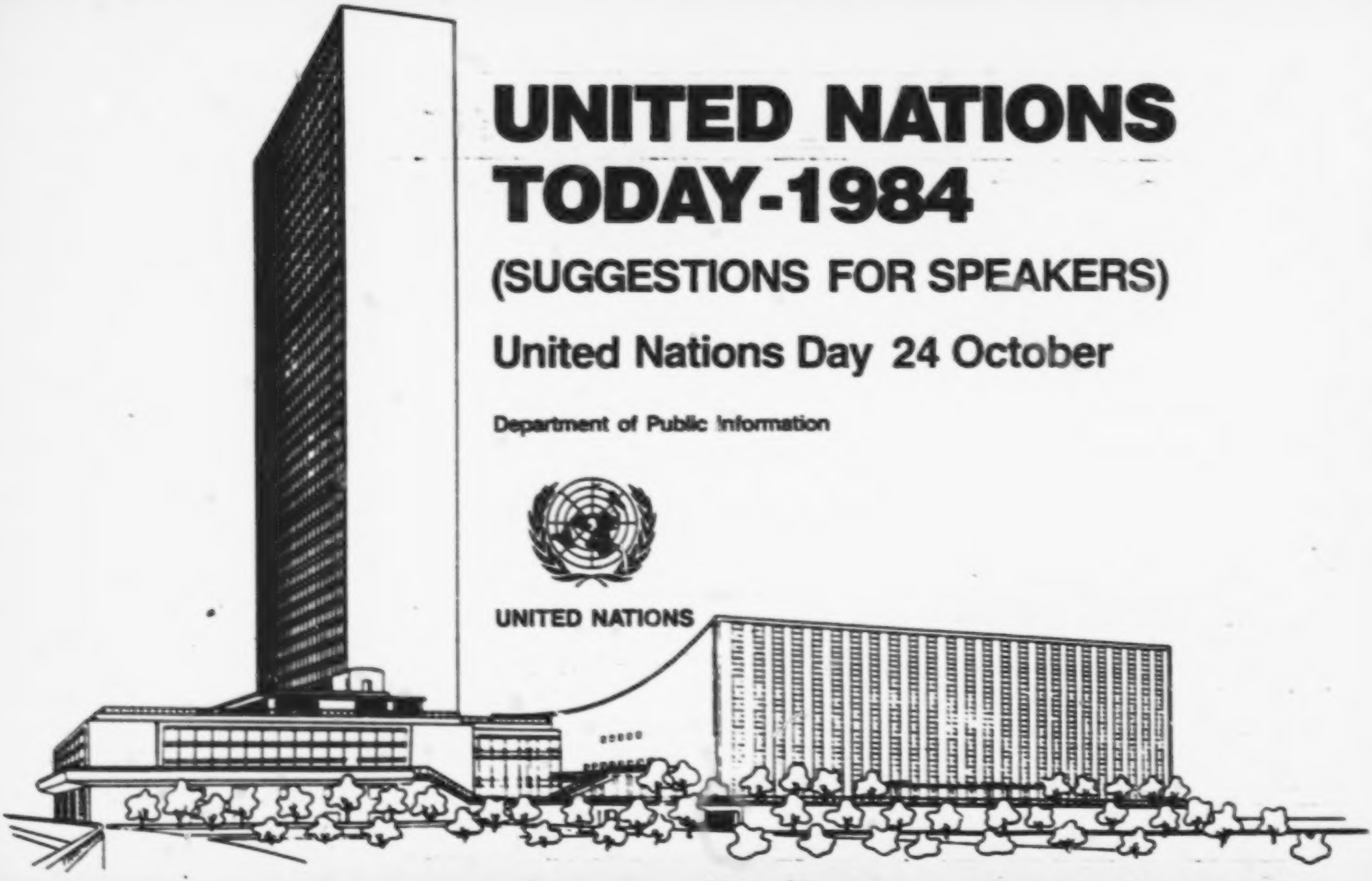
UNITED NATIONS TODAY-1984

(SUGGESTIONS FOR SPEAKERS)

United Nations Day 24 October

Department of Public Information

UNITED NATIONS



This booklet, prepared by the United Nations Department of Public Information, is intended to provide for speakers an overview of the United Nations today. It is largely based on the main points in the annual reports on the work of the Organization made by Secretary-General Javier Pérez de Cuéllar, especially in his latest report issued in September 1984.

This publication should not be regarded as a comprehensive survey of all the activities of the United Nations. For a more detailed presentation of specific UN topics, speakers on the UN are invited, in addition to all or parts of the material presented here, to refer to the relevant sections of the UN publication "Basic Facts about the United Nations".

Further information may be obtained from the nearest United Nations Information Centre.

United Nations
New York, 1984

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INTRODUCTION

Almost 40 years ago, the peoples of the United Nations expressed their determination:

— To practice tolerance and live together in peace with one another as good neighbours;
— To unite their strength to maintain international peace and security and to ensure, by the acceptance of principles and the institution of methods, that armed force shall not be used save in the common interest; and
— To employ international machinery for the promotion of the economic and social advancement of all peoples.

These are among the first words of the Charter of the United Nations which has now been accepted by 158 Member States.

Peace is the central vision that inspired the founding of the United Nations. But the founding nations did more than describe a vision. They established in the Charter the principles of international conduct and instrumentalities for the harmonization of national interests and the peaceful resolution of disputes that were intended to make the vision reality.

These principles, however, have been frequently transgressed over the years since 1945 and the instrumentalities, on occasion, ignored or misused. The result is that the value of the Organization and its ability to maintain peace through multilateral means are at times called into question, while it is forgotten that the United Nations is not a super-State, but an instrument whose full effectiveness depends on the political will of the Governments of which it is composed.

Obviously, a world of 158 sovereign States is one in which a diversity of perceptions and a clash of national policies is inevitable. However, to the degree in which these elements of difference or collision can lead to armed conflict, it is vital to make all Governments realize that today, no State may expand at the expense of another and that war is now only a way to mutual destruction.

Today, in 1984, when no corner of the earth is hidden from the eye of the satellite, science and the demands of human solidarity have brought us to the stage when the world must be seen as a single whole. The divisions between East and West, North and South are, of course, facts of international life, but they cannot eclipse the foremost lesson of history and the first commandment of contemporary political life: nations must learn to live in peace with one another, if they are to live well at all.

The seriousness of present problems should not be allowed to conceal the fact that, on not a few occasions, the hostile blasts have begun to blow more softly, thanks to the existence and influence of the United Nations.

Moreover, the progress made over the past 40 years in the agreed definition of human rights and legitimate human expectations, in the attainment of independence from colonialism, and in health and education justify belief that the purposes defined in the Charter of the United Nations, if pursued with commitment, can lead to real progress.

The new and ever-changing relationship of forces in human affairs, between wealth and poverty, power and weakness, and different economic and social systems, all these are represented in the halls of the Organization and their interaction reveals what tendencies need to be discarded and what fostered, so as to advance the interests of peace, justice and progress. By being a barometer of the international situation, the United Nations furnishes a most valuable basis for the work of policy makers. It provides a meeting place for representatives of States who would otherwise never develop contacts with one another. It opens corridors of communications and these serve to bring the total international reality within the purview of policy makers. It gives them an encouragement or guide for tomorrow. Thus, even in the darkest days, the existence of the United Nations has its value: it furnishes a warning against unbalanced policies and miscalculation and serves as a factor of peace.

The world Organization should not, of course, be looked upon as a piece of self-contained machinery. It is a living institution which can function only with the combined strength of those who reject the notion of the inevitability of world conflict and continue to believe in the future of humanity.

In the three annual reports he has issued on the work of the Organization, Secretary-General Javier Pérez de Cuéllar has expressed his views on the international situation and the challenges facing the United Nations. Concentrating on certain approaches which might make the Organization more effective as a political institution, the Secretary-General in his reports has emphasized the need for Member States to reaffirm their commitment to the principles of the Charter and to make fullest use of the machinery of the United Nations.

In connection with the Fortieth Anniversary of the United Nations which will be marked next year, the Secretary-General has expressed the hope that this anniversary will provide a further occasion not only to review the performance of the Organization over the past four decades but, above all, to encourage a rededication by Member States to the principles and purposes of the Charter, to promote interest in the work of the Organization and support for its efforts and to reinvigorate international co-operation in all fields of human endeavour.

The anniversary, he added, will also provide a much needed opportunity to give the people of the world a truthful account of what the United Nations can and cannot do, of its successes and failures, of its means and limitations, of its dreams and realities.

THE SITUATION TODAY

The noble vision of a world free from war, injustices and deprivation that was first conceived in San Francisco unfortunately remains an unattained objective for the international community. In his first report to the United Nations General Assembly (September 1982), the new Secretary-General, Javier Pérez de Cuéllar, stated that "the UN has been unable to play as effective and decisive a role as the Charter certainly envisaged for it". As he elaborated in his latest report to the General Assembly (September 1984), "Unfortunately the history of postwar international relations has so far shown that the common interest in peace and security has tended to assert itself only when things have reached a dangerously critical stage. Until that stage short-term national interest and opportunism tend to override the common interest. We are still very far from general acceptance of the principles of the Charter as rules to be lived by at all times by all Governments in their international relations."

THE ROLE OF MULTILATERALISM

More than ever, the world's political, economic and social problems are increasingly resistant to solely national solutions. For example, over the past year, as the Secretary-General says in his latest annual report, "great-Power tension has been accentuated by a lack of progress in disarmament and arms control which has heightened fears of nuclear confrontation; of violence or threatened violence in several parts of the world; of continued economic difficulties in spite of a recovery in certain developed countries and a deterioration in the situation in many developing countries; of drought and famine in several regions; and of a tendency to side-step major problems in a way which is likely in the long run to increase frustration and bitterness. Virtually nothing that has happened has shown that these problems can be solved effectively by purely bilateral or unilateral efforts." He continues, "Why has there been a retreat from internationalism and multilateralism at a time when actual developments both in relation to world peace and to the world economy would seem to demand their strengthening? We need to consider this question carefully if we are to make our institutions work better. It is paradoxical that while contemporary realities have strengthened the need for the use of multilateral means for dealing with our problems and enlarged the scope for growth and development through multilateralism, there is an increasing questioning of the rules, instruments and modalities of multilateral co-operation. There is also, on occasion, an apparent reluctance to make the effort required to use international organizations effectively."

THE ARMS RACE AND THE NUCLEAR THREAT

The unceasing accumulation of arms, both nuclear and conventional, has added a new urgency to the search for a system to relieve the insecurity of nations. In an age when mankind is living under the deepening shadow of the nuclear arms race, we need, more than ever, to use the machinery for peace proffered by the United Nations under its Charter.

"We live today in the presence of a chilling and unprecedented phenomenon. At the peak of world power there exist enough nuclear weapons to destroy life on our planet. It seems evident that nothing worthwhile would survive such a holocaust, and this fact, above all else, contains the nuclear confrontation—for the time being at least." (Secretary-General's 1983 report)

To achieve progress in the limitation and reduction of arms, "it is essential to utilize the full potential of multilateral *and* bilateral negotiations, both to improve mutual understanding of the reasoning behind military postures and negotiating positions and to reach substantive, balanced arms regulation and disarmament agreements ... To approach nuclear disarmament exclusively as a factor in the relations of the nuclear Powers and their allies is to do injustice to the broad and grave responsibility that the possession of nuclear weapons carries with it ... It is especially valuable in times of tension that a multilateral structure is available within which nations, despite their differences, can come together for dialogue and serious negotiations, whether in the General Assembly, the Security Council or the Geneva Conference on Disarmament. In fact, the possibility exists in that Conference for nuclear and non-nuclear countries to work together towards agreement on such vital subjects as measures to avoid nuclear war, the prohibition of nuclear-weapon tests, the prevention of an arms race in outer space, and the complete prohibition and destruction of chemical weapons." (Secretary-General's 1984 report)

UN ACCOMPLISHMENTS

In looking back over the years since the Second World War, the Secretary-General points out in his 1984 annual report, it would be a grave mistake to underestimate, or simply take for granted, what has been achieved and what is now being done by the United Nations system. During a period of revolutionary change it has accomplished a great deal for the betterment of the human condition.

The United Nations has played a decisive role in the process of decolonization which has brought independence to hundreds of millions of people. The Security Council has throughout its existence considered many of the difficult problems of conflict in the world and on a large number of occasions has come up with a basic formula on which their solution might be based. It has also taken numerous actions to limit and control conflict. Peace-keeping operations have successfully controlled violence in a number of regional conflicts, whose escalation into global conflict has been avoided. Even on the most difficult question of disarmament and arms limitation a number of agreements have in fact been reached.

The United Nations Development Programme, together with the specialized agencies, has come to represent a vital source of economic and technical assistance for developing countries. The United Nations Children's Fund has brought life and hope to millions of children and mothers and is the leading influence in furthering technological and communication advances that can bring a virtual survival revolution for children in Asia, Africa and Latin America. The specialized agencies have, in their various fields of activity, made major contributions to the alleviation of global problems.

The United Nations has provided authoritative definitions of the fundamental rights and freedoms which all human beings should enjoy. It is responsible for the development of the Convention on the Law of the Sea which provides a broadly accepted new régime for the oceans. In the past 40 years more has been done by the United Nations in codifying international law than in all the previous years of history together. Millions of refugees have gained protection and assistance through United Nations instruments and agencies; international humanitarian activity and concern have been mobilized on an unprecedented scale; guidelines have been established to deal with many of the most critical problems of our time, and the Governments and peoples of the world have been sensitized to their importance through the great international conferences and programmes which the United Nations has sponsored, the most recent of which was the International Conference on Population held in August this year.

All of these accomplishments required a multilateral structure of co-operation. Moreover, in some situations the United Nations, or the Secretary-General, remains essential to communication between the parties. "I think, for example, of Cyprus, over which at this moment I am engaged in a new effort to find a just solution; of Afghanistan, the Iran/Iraq war and South-East Asia. The critical value of peace-making and peace-keeping efforts would be instantly evident if they were to cease. It is essential, in considering our problems, to remember the positive side of the United Nations account and to keep in perspective politically-motivated criticism."

SECRETARY-GENERAL'S PROPOSALS FOR ENHANCING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE UN

A. A Need for Reflection

"However, for all of the accomplishments of the past decades, and they have been major, the fact of the matter is that the three main elements of a stable international order—an accepted system of maintaining international peace and security; disarmament and arms limitation; and the progressive development of a just and effective system of international economic relations—have yet to take hold as they should." (Secretary-General's 1984 report)

Secretary-General Javier Pérez de Cuéllar has devoted considerable attention to what he calls the erosion of confidence in multilateralism, and more specifically to the "central problem of the Organization's capacity to keep the peace and serve as a forum for negotiations." (Secretary-General's 1982 report)

In his latest report, he cautions against excessively confrontational tendencies: "What needs to be studied in the light of experience is whether present practices in the United Nations are in all instances best suited to promote concrete and just solutions and strengthen confidence in an Organization the essence of which is its universality. If confrontations in the deliberative organs are carried too far, either by one side or the other, they destroy the possibility of a consensus which could form the basis for practical action. I am totally in sympathy with the pursuit of just aspirations, however great the difficulties. But for the good of all, as well as of the United Nations itself, we should assess very carefully the most effective and correct method of using the Organization".

He also addresses the charge of "politicization" of issues: "We should be beware of blurring the separate and specific functions of the main organs and specialized agencies by treating them as interchangeable platforms for pursuing the same political aims. Issues must be dealt with primarily on their own merits and in their own context. Otherwise the fever of one or two issues can pervade the entire body politic of the United Nations."

Similarly, the Secretary-General urges that rhetoric is no substitute for the conscientious implementation of resolutions by all Member States: "The non-implementation of resolutions, as well as their proliferation, has tended to downgrade the seriousness with which Governments and the public take the decisions of the United Nations. Very often the only outcome of such a process is to ask the Secretary-General to make yet another report to the next session, thus perpetuating a stalemate which, to be resolved, requires governmental and intergovernmental action. This process, and the almost automatic repetition of some agenda items and debates, is expensive and time-consuming both in terms of meetings and documentation, as well as often being ineffective in terms of practical results. I believe that such tendencies have been debilitating to the efforts of the Organization in the cause of peace and economic co-operation. I hope that Member States, even during the forthcoming session of the General Assembly, will give serious thought to the best way of doing business."

B. The Security Council and Collective Security

It is the need to strengthen the Security Council and the Charter system of international peace and security—or, in fact, to make effective use of existing machinery—that has most concerned Secretary-General Javier Pérez de Cuéllar since he took up office in January 1982. This is because, as he said in his first annual report that year, "It seems to me that our most urgent goal is to reconstruct the Charter concept of collective action for peace and security so as to render the United Nations more capable of carrying out its primary function. It was the lack of an effective system of collective security through the League of Nations that, among other factors, led to the Second World War. Although we now face a vastly changed world situation, Governments in fact need more than ever a workable system of collective security in which they can have real confidence. Without such a system, Governments will feel it necessary to arm themselves beyond their means for their own security, thereby increasing the general insecurity. Without such a system, the world community will remain powerless to deal with military adventures which threaten the very fabric of international peace, and the danger of the widening and escalation of local conflicts will be correspondingly greater. Without such a system there will be no reliable defence or shelter for the small and weak. And without such a system all our efforts on the economic and social side, which also need their own collective impetus, may well falter."

In that report, the Secretary-General made a number of specific suggestions for enhancing the Security Council's effectiveness, *inter alia:*

— He called for more timely action by the Council. Disputes should not be left to the last minute for an attempt at solution. Rather, the Council should try to "keep a watch" on dangerous situations, to help the parties reach agreement before the actual outbreak of violence. Moreover, the Council should act on its own initiative and not necessarily await a request from a party to a dispute;

— He proposed that the Council devise better means of dealing with potential conflict situations by the swift dispatch of good offices missions, military or civilian observers or a UN presence. In addition, he urged that Council members should more conscientiously and consistently follow up their resolutions and try to ensure their implementation;

— With regard to UN peace-keeping operations, he recommended that ways be studied to strengthen them and to underpin their authority, perhaps by guarantees for supportive action by Member States.

As for his own role, the Secretary-General served notice that he was considering a more systematic and forthright approach in bringing dangerous situations to the attention of the Council under Article 99 of the Charter: "The Secretary-General may bring to the attention of the Security Council any matter which in his opinion may threaten the maintenance of international peace and security". As an extension of this idea, he would also "develop a wider and more systematic capacity for fact-finding in potential conflict areas".

In the 1984 report, the Secretary-General notes that the suggestions he made for giving new impetus to the Charter system of international peace and security have still not yielded concrete results, despite lengthy and thoughtful consultations among Council members. He concludes that "the realization of the full potential of the United Nations depends upon a willingness to take active steps to experiment with new approaches".

C. Peace-keeping

One of the more successful of such innovations, according to the Secretary-General, is peace-keeping, a conflict-control mechanism that has attracted considerable international attention over the past year. As the Secretary-General explains: "We are often urged to strengthen the peace-keeping capacity of the United Nations, the implications being that this is a matter that can be handled without regard to the political relations of Member States and particularly of members of the Security Council. A number of lessons have been learned recently about the nature of peace-keeping, but it is essential to emphasize the fundamental issue. Peace-keeping is an expression of international political consensus and will. If that consensus or will is weak, uncertain, divided or indecisive, peace-keeping operations will be correspondingly weakened. There are occasions when the differences among members of the Security Council even make it impossible to take any peace-keeping action at all. The strongest peace-keeping operation would be one which had the unreserved support, political, diplomatic and financial, of all the Members of the United Nations and even the actual participation of the permanent members of the Security Council under the mandate of the Council. This may be unrealistic at present, but it is also the political truth which indeed applies across the whole range of the activities of the Organization."

The Secretary-General also uses the example of peace-keeping "to demonstrate the process by which internationalism becomes discredited in the public mind . . . When this technique cannot be used in a situation which obviously requires it, because the members of the Security Council are divided on the matter, the public generally concludes that there is something wrong with the United Nations and with the concept of internationalism. This conclusion is, of course, easier than analysing the conflicting positions and motives of Governments which are the real cause of the impasse and of the failure of the United Nations to act or to respond." (Secretary-General's 1984 report)

D. Economic and Social Co-operation

The Secretary-General's concern with the current challenge to multilateralism extends equally to the economic and social spheres. "It is easy", he says in his latest report, "to criticize United Nations economic institutions because such institutions often fall short of their high aims. Conflicting national interests in a time of flux and change make such a falling short virtually inevitable. Nevertheless, multilateral co-operation has already achieved much, most of it taken for granted as soon as it is achieved."

Some UN activities in these fields are self-evident: "The support provided by the United Nations system for development, excluding the World Bank, now amounts to over $2 billion a year. High priority is given to the low-income countries with particular attention to the problems of the poorest of the poor. In a period of restricted resources, continuous efforts are being made to ensure more effective operational co-operation within the United Nations system." Others are in less tangible forms: "for example, the extent to which the United Nations has succeeded in raising global consciousness on key issues, the critical situation in Africa being a case in point, or in shaping the framework of international debates on major problems".

Doubts and criticism expressed about United Nations endeavours for development and economic co-operation need to be faced, the Secretary-General continues in his 1984 report. "One of these, for example, relates to the complex issue of the relative roles accorded in United Nations discussions to Governments and to the private sector." As for the charge of politicization of economic issues, it must be realized that in the present world few issues can be regarded as completely unpolitical. Moreover, "many Governments feel that only when economic issues are politicized will they attract the attention of the highest level of decision makers. And many economic issues are so complex that only decisions at the highest levels can make any significant impact on the current situation."

E. Human Rights

As the Secretary-General emphasizes in his new report, "Respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms is one of the basic principles of the United Nations. A human rights philosophy based on the concept of an international rule of law pervades the Charter, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the codifying instruments adopted by the United Nations since its establishment. These instruments are the yardstick for measuring regard or disregard for human rights."

The criticism the United Nations sometimes encounters in this area should be welcomed, the Secretary-General continues, "in the hope that it will spur everyone, including the critics, on to a more serious assessment of the importance—and the difficulty—of reducing injustice in an unjust world, of promoting development in a world divided between rich and poor, and of instilling the virtues of mercy and compassion into people many of whom are fighting—or believe they are fighting—for their lives". He also reminds observers that perceptions are not uniform: "One person's freedom fighter is another person's terrorist; one's champion of human rights is another's subversive; one's plaintiff is another's criminal. The reality is that many are dispossessed, many confined, many tortured and many starve. This is the world we have to deal with."

The Secretary-General's own role will continue to be "to help individuals whose human rights may have been violated"—and, in particular, to "seek to facilitate the release of those who may have been imprisoned or sentenced for political reasons. The criteria for judging such efforts must be whether they advance the cause of human rights and not whether they serve the political interest of one side or another." The United Nations must try to create the conditions which will encourage all Governments to ensure respect of human rights in accordance with the internationally recognized standards proclaimed by the Organization. At the same time, "we should examine existing United Nations practices and consider ways and means to make them more effective in dealing with gross violations of human rights wherever they occur".

F. New Areas of UN Action

Multilateral action through the UN is indispensable to relieve the plight of the most vulnerable groups in the weakest developing countries, especially in the face of unprecedented or unexpected difficulties. But better means of alleviating and preventing crises have to be developed; as the Secretary-General stresses in his latest report, the United Nations must improve its capacity to provide humanitarian assistance quickly. He proposes the establishment of an early warning system, whereby the heads of the UN agencies and field offices would alert him of any situation that could give rise to a major humanitarian crisis. Such an initiative is vital, since "It is a fundamental responsibility of the international community to come to the aid of its least fortunate and most afflicted members".

Another major and growing international anxiety is the problem of narcotic drugs, not least because of its appalling effect on societies and on the future of young people. "It has become more and more evident that international and multilateral efforts provide the best hope for arresting and reducing the traffic in and use of drugs . . . The institutions of the United Nations system, in co-operation with Governments and other groups concerned with the problem, are actively working to deal with it. Greater effort is needed, however, and, for my part, I have taken steps to improve the co-ordination within the United Nations system of this vital activity."

Finally, the Secretary-General urges in his latest report that the international community confront the steady increase in various forms of politically motivated violence. He mentions such acts as hijacking, kidnapping, car-bombing and assassination. "Our society is in some sectors becoming an armed camp. Order, civility and even public life are under serious threat in many parts of the world. As usual, the toll of innocent victims is appalling. It is not enough to deplore or condemn or try tc control such acts of violence. Attention has also to be focused on ways of dealing with the root causes of these phenomena."

THE NEED FOR THE UNITED NATIONS

In his first report, in 1982, Secretary-General Javier Pérez de Cuéllar concluded that the trend towards erosion of confidence in multilateralism, and specifically in the United Nations, "must be reversed before once again we bring upon ourselves a global catastrophe and find ourselves without institutions effective enough to prevent it".

In September 1984, after nearly three years as Secretary-General, he affirms that he is more convinced than ever of the need to preserve and strengthen the UN as a centre for harmonizing the actions of nations. He emphasizes that the Organization provides an indispensable forum for multilateral co-operation in the fields of peace and security, disarmament, human rights, global economic progress and operational activities for development. He urges new endeavours by the United Nations to foresee and prevent future humanitarian crises, to deal with the growing problem of narcotic drugs, and to confront the steady increase in politically motivated violence.

These objectives can only be accomplished by the international community, the Secretary-General points out, if Governments strike a constructive balance between national and international interest. He concludes, in 1984, by repeating his call for a multilateral and rational approach to the problems of international peace and development. "I believe that this is what the peoples of the United Nations really desire in spite of all the difficulties and irritations encountered by Governments in trying to make a multilateral system work. It is widely understood that without such a system we shall run unacceptable risks and that it is therefore irresponsible to weaken the multilateral approach. Without the safety net which multilateral organization provides, the world would certainly be a much more dangerous and disorderly place.

"In the United Nations we have now had nearly 40 years of experience, 40 years of change, and, for all the conflict of our time, 40 years without a global war. Let us look back at the road we have travelled, distil the experience and set out again refreshed and with a new determination. The purposes for which the United Nations was set up are essential for the future of our planet. The vision expressed in the Charter remains, and we should rally to it."

THE UNITED NATIONS AT FORTY

Following is the text of a statement made on 31 May 1984 by United Nations Secretary-General Javier Pérez de Cuéllar to the opening meeting of the Preparatory Committee for the Fortieth Anniversary of the United Nations in 1985.

I welcome the decision of the General Assembly regarding the observance of the fortieth anniversary of the United Nations. Member States are aware of my views on the international situation and the challenges facing our Organization. I have expressed these in my reports of 1982 and 1983 on the work of the Organization. I am grateful for the care with which these views have been considered by a number of Member States and in the Security Council.

To me, the fortieth anniversary of the United Nations provides a further occasion not only to review the performance of the Organization over the past four decades but, above all, to encourage a rededication by Member States to the principles and purposes of the Charter, to promote interest in the work of the Organization and support for its efforts and to reinvigorate international co-operation in all fields of human endeavour. There can be little doubt that, if it is governed by such an approach, the observance can help further the cause of international understanding.

The General Assembly has wisely given us good time to think ahead and to prepare for the anniversary. It will be the special task of your Committee to make proposals to the thirty-ninth session of the General Assembly this fall. I assure you of my full co-operation and that of the Secretariat in the planning of the anniversary. At this opening of your first meeting, may I be permitted to share a few personal views with you.

First of all, I believe that nothing could be more valuable for the peace of the world than a firm recommitment by all Member States to their obligations under the Charter and its fundamental purposes. This recommitment needs to be expressed not so much through ceremony and in words as in policies and actions. A renewal of faith in the Organization is absolutely necessary to the future of the global community.

Second, I believe that it would be appropriate for every Member State to take a searching look at the impact of the United Nations and of its work on international life. This should include an objective assessment of the benefits, tangible and intangible, which have flowed to every Member State, as perceived in the perspective not of narrow short-term interests but of the entire human community and its evolution. It will also undoubtedly mean an examination of the weaknesses and shortcomings of the Organization and their cause or causes.

The aim should be to suggest what positive actions and improvements can be effected forthwith and during the last 15 years of this century until the bimillenium. I would like to see each Member State call upon its best thinkers and prominent citizens conversant with world affairs to undertake such a review and to propose concrete programmes of action in order to strengthen commitment to the aims and purposes of the Organization.

Third, the anniversary will provide a much-needed opportunity to give the people of the world a truthful account of what the United Nations can and cannot do, of its successes and failures, of its means and limitations, of its dreams and realities. During my travels in many countries, I am often struck by the low level of knowledge, prevalent among the people, about the United Nations at the very time when a much better awareness is so indispensable. May I express the hope that 1985 will witness the beginning of a serious educative effort to foster world-wide information about the United Nations and that Governments, the media and educators will play an important role in this endeavour.

Fourth, I am sure that future historians will consider the establishment and development of the United Nations system of specialized agencies and world programmes since 1945 as a most remarkable achievement of the international community during the second half of the twentieth century. What is involved in this process might well be the transformation of a community of nations into an international society, equipped with instrumentalities for the performance of essential global functions and the attainment of substantial benefits for all humanity, including its most-needed members, through the joint actions of Governments. The creation, development and work of this historically unprecedented international institutional system would merit to be brought to light during the fortieth anniversary.

Fifth, as the chief administrative officer of the Secretariat, one of the principal organs established by the Charter, I pledge once again my determination to administer, to guide and to seek to inspire the Secretariat so as to make it worthy of the confidence placed in it by Member States and by the peoples of the world. I will pursue my efforts to streamline Secretariat structures, to strengthen the efficiency of services rendered, to improve co-ordination and to eliminate duplication and waste.

Sixth, it seems to me right and proper that the world community should speak out frankly and with a full sense of responsibility towards the entire human family and its planetary home, about the shortcomings of Member States and of this Organization to fulfil such vital purposes as the consolidation of peace and security, disarmament, economic development and the promotion of human rights.

Last, but not least, may I express the fervent hope that every effort will be made to have the year 1985 stand out laudably as a year of peace, conflict resolution, restraint, international co-operation and friendship among nations. This would be the way of transforming an anniversary into a celebration.

Our preparatory work should lead, at the anniversary session of the General Assembly which might be attended at the highest possible level, to an objective and historical balance-sheet. We should count our successes as well as our failures. I refer here above all to the frightening course taken by the arms race, as well as to several protracted unresolved conflicts.

We need to work with determination on the negative items of that balance-sheet while drawing encouragement from the progress achieved. Animated by the will of all to make the journey of humanity on this planet less stormy, and happier than at present, we should work for the attainment of an era of peace and accomplishment that will give a new direction to the course of human destiny by the year 2000.

I leave out at this stage other personal thoughts relating in particular to the participation and role in the anniversary of other intergovernmental, non-governmental and regional organizations, of the media, of the academic world, of the churches, of international associations and business, of citizen's groups, of youth, of women, of prominent international personalities and thinkers, and of the international civil service. I might have occasion to refer to them during the preparatory process.

Already now, barely a day passes when I do not receive proposals, visits, ideas and expressions of support and help from many people and organizations interested in the anniversary. There seems to be so much despair and disillusionment in the world today that the United Nations appears to many as a last ray of hope and salvation.

As we embark upon our work, we may recall these lines written by Franklin Roosevelt on the last day of his life for a speech he intended to deliver at the San Francisco Conference:

> "The work, my friends, is peace: more than an end of this war — and end to the beginning of all wars. I ask you to keep up your faith. The only limit to our realization of tomorrow will be our doubts of today. Let us move forward with a strong and active faith."

For further information on preparations for the fortieth anniversary year of the United Nations, please write:

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JAVIER PEREZ DE CUELLAR

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY-GENERAL ON THE WORK OF THE ORGANIZATION

1984

UNITED NATIONS

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UNITED NATIONS
New York, 1984

Report of the Secretary-General on the Work of the Organization

September 1984

AFTER nearly three years as Secretary-General of the United Nations, I am more convinced than ever of the need to preserve and strengthen the Organization as a centre for harmonizing the actions of nations. I also believe that an extended and tolerable future for all humanity ultimately depends upon our success in making the purposes and principles of the Charter of the United Nations the basis of the day-to-day relations of Governments and peoples. On the eve of our fortieth anniversary, in this, my third, report on the work of the Organization I intend to examine the basic premises of our activity in the United Nations which is the practical embodiment of the concept of multilateralism.

The original intent of the United Nations was to provide a framework in which Governments of differing persuasions could, in their wisdom, work out solutions to international problems and, if necessary, together take action to put those solutions into effect rather than engaging in conflict. As the Preamble to the Charter puts it, the main purpose was, and is, "to unite our strength to maintain international peace and security". The basic assumption was that all nations had a vital common interest in peace and in an orderly and equitable world and would be prepared to co-operate to achieve it.

Unfortunately the history of post-war international relations has so far shown that the common interest in peace and security has tended to assert itself only when things have reached a dangerously critical stage. Until that stage short-term national interest and opportunism tend to override the common interest. We are still very far from general acceptance of the principles of the Charter as rules to be lived by at all times by all Governments in their international relations.

In these circumstances, it is paradoxical that while contemporary realities have strengthened the need for the use of multilateral means for dealing with our problems and enlarged the scope for growth and development through multilateralism, there is an increasing questioning of the rules, instruments and modalities of multilateral co-operation. There is also, on occasion, an apparent reluctance to make the effort required to use international organizations effectively.

The past year has been a time of great-Power tension accentuated by a lack of progress in disarmament and arms limitation which has heightened fears of nuclear confrontation; of violence or threatened violence in several parts of the world; of continued economic difficulties in spite of a recovery in certain developed countries, and a deterioration in the situation of many developing countries; of drought and famine in several regions; and of a tendency to side-step major problems in a way which is likely in the long run to increase frustration and bitterness. Virtually nothing that has happened has shown that these problems can be solved effectively by purely bilateral or unilateral efforts.

Why has there been a retreat from internationalism and multilateralism at a time when actual developments both in relation to world peace and to the world economy would seem to demand their strengthening? We need to consider this question carefully if we are to make our institutions work better. I hope very much that political scientists and intellectuals the world over, as well as political leaders and diplomats, will ponder this essential problem on the occasion of the fortieth anniversary of the United Nations.

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AFTER the Second World War there was admittedly a certain overconfidence in the capacity of international institutions, born of a desperate desire to build a new and better world. It then seemed possible to establish, as a first priority, a system for maintaining international peace and security under the provisions of the Charter. If such a system could become effective, the main obstacle to disarmament and arms limitation, the insecurity of nations, would be removed, and the rule of law rather than the rule of force would at last begin to come into its own on the international level. With these co-operative achievements a world community would have come into being, capable of directing its affairs by reason and enlightened self-interest. The system would include equitable economic institutions and steady progress in social justice and human rights.

What has happened to that majestic vision? It was soon clouded by the differences of the major Powers. The advent of atomic weapons brought with it a new doctrine of security based on nuclear deterrence, a doctrine which was not taken account of when the Charter was drafted. Moreover, the world turned out to be a more complex, far less orderly place than had been hoped at San Francisco. The problems of post-war international peace and security were less clear cut and less susceptible to the kind of international action envisaged in the Charter. The forces of nationalism and fears for national security, far from abating after the Second World War, were soon very much on the increase. The international community's inability to solve many of its problems, whether political or economic, even when it could agree in principle on what the solution should be, gave rise to a process of side-stepping the United Nations and recourse to other measures—force, unilateral action or confronting military alliances—which weakened reliance on the Organization.

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IN looking back, however, it would be a grave mistake to underestimate, or simply take for granted, what has been achieved and what is now being done by the United Nations system. During a period of revolutionary change it has accomplished a great deal for the betterment of the human condition.

The United Nations has played a decisive role in the process of decolonization which has brought independence to hundreds of millions of people. The Security Council has throughout its existence considered many of the difficult problems of conflict in the world and on a large number of occasions has come up with a basic formula on which their solution might be based. It has also taken numerous actions to limit and control conflict. Peace-keeping operations have successfully controlled violence in a number of critical areas. Nor should we forget that, although there have been a number of regional conflicts, their escalation into global conflict has been avoided. Even on the most difficult question of disarmament and arms limitation a number of agreements have in fact been reached.

The United Nations Development Programme, together with the specialized agencies, has come to represent a vital source of economic and technical assistance for developing countries. The United Nations Children's Fund has brought life and hope to millions of children and mothers and is the leading influence in furthering technological and communication advances that can bring a virtual survival revolution for children in Asia, Africa and Latin America. The specialized agencies have, in their various fields of activity, made major contributions to the alleviation of global problems.

The United Nations has provided authoritative definitions of the fundamental rights and freedoms which all human beings should enjoy. It is responsible for the development of the Convention on the Law of the Sea which provides a broadly accepted new régime for the oceans. In the past 40 years more has been done by the United Nations in codifying international law than in all the previous years of history together. Millions of refugees have gained protection and assistance through United Nations instruments and agencies; international humanitarian activity and concern have been mobilized on an unprecedented scale; guidelines have been established to deal with many of the most critical problems of our time, and the Governments and peoples of the world have been sensitized to their importance through the great international conferences and programmes which the United Nations has sponsored, the most recent of which was the International Conference on Population held in August this year.

All of these accomplishments required a multilateral structure of co-operation. Moreover, in some situations the United Nations, or the Secretary-General, remains essential to communication between the parties. I think, for example, of Cyprus, over which at this moment I am engaged in a new effort to find a just solution; of Afghanistan, the Iran/Iraq war and South-East Asia. The critical value of peace-making and peace-keeping efforts would be instantly evident if they were to cease. It is essential, in considering our problems, to remember the positive side of the United Nations account and to keep in perspective politically-motivated criticism.

However, for all of the accomplishments of the past decades, and they have been major, the fact of the matter is that the three main elements of a stable international order—an accepted system of maintaining international peace and security; disarmament and arms limitation; and the progressive development of a just and effective system of international economic relations—have yet to take hold as they should.

In dealing with the most vital problems of the widest concern, we often witness heated rhetoric rather than a reasoned co-operative approach. In such an atmosphere, which extends far beyond the Organization, the United Nations, which should be used to provide constructive solutions, provides a convenient target of criticism.

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THE United Nations reflects in a unique way the aspirations and frustrations of many nations and groups all over the world. One of its great merits is that all nations—including the weak, the oppressed and the victims of injustice—can get a hearing and have a platform even in the face of the hard realities of power. A just cause, however frustrated or disregarded, can find a voice in the United Nations. This is not always a well-liked attribute of the Organization, but it is an essential one.

What needs to be studied in the light of experience is whether present practices in the United Nations are in all instances best suited to promote concrete and just solutions and strengthen confidence in an Organization the essence of which is its universality. If confrontations in the deliberative organs are carried too far, either by one side or the other, they destroy the possibility of a consensus which could form the basis for practical action. I am totally in sympathy with the pursuit of just aspirations, however great the difficulties. But for the good of all, as well as of the United Nations itself, we should assess very carefully the most effective and correct method of using the Organization. The United Nations is a willing and patient horse, but it should not be ridden to a standstill without thought of the consequences.

We should beware of blurring the separate and specific functions of the main organs and specialized agencies by treating them as interchangeable platforms for pursuing the same political aims. Issues must be dealt with primarily on their own merits and in their own context. Otherwise the fever of one or two issues can pervade the entire body politic of the United Nations.

The non-implementation of resolutions, as well as their proliferation, has tended to downgrade the seriousness with which Governments and the public take the decisions of the United Nations. Very often the only outcome of such a process is to ask the Secretary-General to make yet another report to the next session, thus perpetuating a stalemate which, to be resolved, requires governmental and intergovernmental action. This process, and the almost automatic repetition of some agenda items and debates, is expensive and time-consuming both in terms of meetings and documentation, as well as often being ineffective in terms of practical results. I believe that such tendencies have been debilitating to the efforts of the Organization in the cause of peace and economic co-operation. I hope that Member States, even during the forthcoming session of the General Assembly, will give serious thought to the best way of doing business.

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TWO years ago in my first annual report I made a series of suggestions as to how the Charter system of international peace and security might be made to work better. Although the Security Council has devoted many hours of thoughtful consultations to these and related ideas, concrete results are still needed for which the impetus must come from the highest political levels. I feel that the realization of the full potential of the United Nations depends upon a willingness to take active steps to experiment with new approaches.

In recent years the collective capacity and influence of the Security Council have been insufficiently tested. There are important issues where the members of the Council, including the permanent members, hold substantially similar views. And yet other factors not directly related to these problems inhibit the Council from exerting collective influence as envisaged in the Charter.

The same consideration applies to peace-keeping. We are often urged to strengthen the peace-keeping capacity of the United Nations, the implication being that this is a matter that can be handled without regard to the political relations of Member States and particularly of members of the Security Council. A number of lessons have been learned recently about the nature of peace-keeping, but it is essential to emphasize the fundamental issue. Peace-keeping is an expression of international political consensus and will. If that consensus or will is weak, uncertain, divided or indecisive, peace-keeping operations will be correspondingly weakened. There are occasions when the differences among members of the Security Council even make it impossible to take any peace-keeping action at all. The strongest peace-keeping operation would be one which had the unreserved support, political, diplomatic and financial, of *all* the Members of the United Nations and even the actual participation of the permanent members of the Security Council under the mandate of the Council. This may be unrealistic at present, but it is also the political truth which indeed applies across the whole range of the activities of the Organization.

I give the example of peace-keeping to demonstrate the process by which internationalism becomes discredited in the public mind. Peace-keeping is one of the more successful innovations of the United Nations. But when this technique cannot be used in a situation which obviously requires it, because the members of the Security Council are divided on the matter, the public generally concludes that there is something wrong with the United Nations and with the concept of internationalism. This conclusion is, of course, easier than analysing the conflicting positions and motives of Governments which are the real cause of the impasse and of the failure of the United Nations to act or to respond.

I do not have any simple solutions to offer to this problem. Obviously a radical improvement in the international political climate would make a profound difference, but we cannot rely on miracles. In the mean time, we could perhaps work on a few ideas for improving the situation, on the assumption that our common and agreed objective is human survival in reasonably decent conditions.

I myself have put forward some ideas and suggestions on a number of issues—about Lebanon, for example, and the Middle East problem—but the reactions so far have been mixed. I notice that there is a tendency at present in the direction of bilateral or unilateral action, or no action at all. And yet bilateral or unilateral approaches do not seem to be noticeably effective in most cases. Nor is this surprising, for by their very nature many of the disputes that we face around the globe require the building of a wide consensus if solutions are to hold.

I suggest that we review the current tendency in relation to specific situations. I very much hope, for instance, that we shall see real—and long overdue—progress in proceeding to the independence of Namibia on the basis of the United Nations plan. I also hope that in the coming months we shall see the full and concrete co-operation and positive action which are needed to ensure the success of the untiring efforts which the Contadora Group is making for peace in Central America.

In many disputes accusations and counter-accusations are freely traded over a situation which, to most people, is mystifying and complex. What harm would be done if United Nations teams were dispatched to clarify and certify what the real facts are? Surely such clarification of the situation by objective observers might help to reduce international tension and strengthen other efforts. Let us ask ourselves what useful steps can be taken in a given situation rather than starting by thinking of all the extraneous reasons why they *cannot* be taken.

Most of all we need to reaffirm the Charter concept that threats to international peace and security, from whatever source or in whatever region of the world, override ideological or other differences between States and entail an obligation on all States to agree and co-operate. Under the terms of the Charter some situations clearly require immediate consideration and action by the Security Council regardless of political disagreements. Surely one such situation is when a national frontier is violated and the State concerned calls for United Nations action.

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THERE must of course be a substantial improvement in the international climate if there is to be meaningful progress in the limitation and reduction of arms. This is a field in which it is essential to utilize the full potential of multilateral *and* bilateral negotiations, both to improve mutual understanding of the reasoning behind military postures and negotiating positions and to reach substantive, balanced arms regulation and disarmament agreements. During the past year there has been little sign of movement in this direction, and the arms race has continued to burgeon both qualitatively and quantitatively.

It is only realistic to recognize that nuclear disarmament will depend primarily on agreement among the nations having nuclear weapons, especially, and beginning with, the two most powerful. It is equally true, however, that success or failure in the reduction of nuclear weapons can have a most important bearing on the future of the entire international community. To approach nuclear disarmament exclusively as a factor in the re-

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lations of the nuclear Powers and their allies is to do injustice to the broad and grave responsibility that the possession of nuclear weapons carries with it. It is also unfortunate and, I believe, unnecessary to allow the course of disarmament negotiations on the whole range of issues in the multilateral forums to be largely governed by tension stemming from other causes. The fact is that progress on the issues included in the agenda of the General Assembly and its subsidiary bodies, and especially on those currently before the Conference on Disarmament, could help to restore confidence and improve the critical bilateral relationship on which the international political climate so heavily depends.

It is especially valuable in times of tension that a multilateral structure is available within which nations, despite their differences, can come together for dialogue and serious negotiations, whether in the General Assembly, the Security Council or the Geneva Conference on Disarmament. In fact, the possibility exists in that Conference for nuclear and non-nuclear countries to work together towards agreement on such vital subjects as measures to avoid nuclear war, the prohibition of nuclear-weapon tests, the prevention of an arms race in outer space, and the complete prohibition and destruction of chemical weapons. If, instead, the Conference is used mainly for the public presentation of rigid positions and rhetorical exchanges, the potential of this broadly representative negotiating forum will be largely wasted. I urge all concerned—East, West, non-aligned and neutral alike—to recognize that the need for disarmament measures—both nuclear and conventional—is too compelling to allow this to happen.

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LET me turn to another aspect, namely, multilateral co-operation through the United Nations in the economic and social spheres. We are here in the presence of a slightly different set of political realities and in a predominantly North-South dimension. Global economic relations have changed significantly since the immediate post-war years when most international economic institutions began their work. There has been growing frustration among the developing countries, a large international constituency which has looked upon the institutions of multilateral economic co-operation established after the Second World War as insufficiently responsive to the needs of those countries. This perception has been strengthened in light of the serious economic difficulties which have affected them in the 1970s and early 1980s. Their attempts in the United Nations, through an essentially political process, to obtain changes in that system have not had the desired results, as shown by the failure to launch global negotiations. It is in a way comprehensible that some developed countries, whose influence in those institutions has been paramount, should find this shift difficult to accept and should tend to favour retaining the existing institutional structures and decision-making machinery as they are.

It is easy to criticize United Nations economic institutions because such institutions often fall short of their high aims. Conflicting national interests in a time of flux and change make such a falling short virtually inevitable. Nevertheless, multilateral co-operation has already achieved much, most of it taken for granted as soon as it is achieved. In an economically interdependent world where the growth and stability of the North is intertwined with accelerated development of the South, it is hard to see how international economic problems can be solved, except through intensified multilateral co-operation. Despite the difficulties involved in such co-operation, it is short-sighted to turn away from the concept of multilateralism and the institutions which embody it.

There is a distinction to be made between United Nations operational activities in the field of development at the national level where much is being achieved, and activities at the *global* level, in trade, money and finance, for example, where there is a high degree of frustration.

The support provided by the United Nations system for development, excluding the World Bank, now amounts to over $2 billion a year. High priority is given to the low income countries with particular attention to the problems of the poorest of the poor. In a period of restricted resources, continuous efforts are being made to ensure more effective operational co-operation within the United Nations system.

It should be mentioned that in the domain of "global" issues, the "achievements" of the Organization cannot be measured simply in terms of the number of treaties and agreements negotiated and signed. Of course, there have been many of these. But many of the contributions of the United Nations are in less tangible forms: for example, the extent to which the United Nations has succeeded in raising global consciousness on key issues, the critical situation in Africa being a case in point, or in shaping the framework of international debates on major problems. For instance, I have consistently stressed the importance of finding solutions to the acute debt problem that go beyond the short term and that take into account the need to ensure growth in the export earnings of developing countries. It is, similarly, in no small measure due to the discussions on the International Development Strategy that the world community today gives a high priority to the cause of development which, in its simplest form, must be understood to mean the raising of the living standards of the vast majority of mankind in this interdependent world, and in a manner that benefits the global economy as a whole.

This aspect of the work of the United Nations has recently met with some doubts and criticisms. These need to be faced. Where substantive issues are raised, they need to be adequately debated, and misunderstandings dispelled. Otherwise, the normal functioning of important organs of the United Nations will be impaired. One of these, for example, relates to the complex issue of the relative roles accorded in United Nations discussions to Governments and to the private sector.

Another matter frequently raised is the extent to which issues that are essentially economic and technical are politicized in the United Nations. I have mentioned one aspect of this problem earlier in this report. There is another aspect. In the present world few issues in human affairs can be regarded as completely unpolitical. Nevertheless, the extent to which economic issues are politicized in the United Nations should also be understood as a reflection of the frustrations which developing countries feel in their long attempt to reshape their economic destiny. The absence of global policy-making—i.e., politics in the best sense—to meet this need is also a factor in this frustration. There is an additional factor; many Governments feel that only when economic issues are politicized will they attract the attention of the highest level of decision makers. And many economic issues are so complex that only decisions at the highest levels can make any significant impact in the current situation.

The difficulties which the community of nations experiences in strengthening economic co-operation in the United Nations stem from a number of causes. A new consensus on economic issues in the light of world economic and political realities has not yet emerged. There is disagreement on the cause of the trouble as well as on what to do about it. Ideological differences on economic problems further complicate the issue. But the absence of a consensus, which will take time to emerge, need not prevent progress in critical areas.

These are not difficulties which can be ignored or willed away. The world is not just one country or one point of view. If we are serious about the future, this is the context in which we need to seek practical solutions to both short-term and long-term problems. Patience, perception and persistence are more relevant to this search than relentless criticism whether from one side or another. Human solidarity demands these qualities. If we do not address current economic problems seriously and urgently, we will not be able to confine them to the economic sphere alone. In our world of growing economic interdependence, impoverished people faced perpetually with a variety of overwhelming economic and social crises constitute not only a challenge to international conscience, but a threat to international stability as well.

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RESPECT for human rights and fundamental freedoms is one of the basic principles of the United Nations. A human rights philosophy based on the concept of an international rule of law pervades the Charter, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the codifying instruments adopted by the United Nations since its establishment. These instruments are the yardstick for measuring regard or disregard for human rights.

In this area too, we constantly encounter trenchant criticism. I welcome such criticism in the hope that it will spur everyone, including the critics, on to a more serious assessment of the importance—and the difficulty—of reducing injustice in an unjust world, of promoting development in a world divided between rich and poor, and of instilling the virtues of mercy and compassion into people many of whom are fighting—or believe they are fighting—for their lives.

I spend much of my time, sometimes with encouraging results, on human rights and humanitarian problems, which I regard as uniquely important. Despite the existence of definitive norms developed within the United Nations, perceptions differ greatly. One person's freedom fighter is another person's terrorist; one's champion of human rights is another's subversive; one's plaintiff is another's criminal. The reality is that many are dispossessed, many confined, many tortured and many starve. This is the world we have to deal with.

In the field of human rights, gross violations, such as the system of *apartheid*, are obviously the first priority for the Organization. In addition, it is my concern to help individuals whose human rights may have been violated. In particular, I seek to facilitate the release of those who may have been imprisoned or sentenced for political reasons. The criteria for judging such efforts must be whether they advance the cause of human rights and not whether they serve the political interest of one side or another.

The primary responsibility in this important matter rests, of course, with Governments which have entered into firm commitments towards each other and towards their peoples to respect internationally recognized standards proclaimed by the United Nations. We must try to create the conditions which will encourage all Governments to ensure respect of human rights in accordance with those standards. At the same time, we should examine existing United Nations practices and consider ways and means to make them more effective in dealing with gross violations of human rights wherever they occur.

The question of human rights is closely linked with the humanitarian activities of the United Nations. It seems to be a general rule that in times of recession or other difficulties, the weakest developing countries suffer the most, and the weakest groups in those countries are the most vulnerable of all.

In such cases, multilateral action through the United Nations is essential to alleviate the plight of the victims—action parallel to and co-ordinated with the remarkable work of non-governmental agencies. Various institutions within the United Nations system, including the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East, the United Nations Children's Fund and the Office of the United Nations Disaster Relief Co-ordinator, as well as the specialized agencies, have done much in this field.

During the past year, the United Nations has focused attention on two major problems. In December 1983, I launched an appeal for help to the many African countries which were facing the worst drought in the twentieth century. The Second International Conference on Assistance to Refugees in Africa in July of this year was another manifestation of multilateral co-operation in dealing with urgent social and humanitarian problems.

It is essential that we learn from our experience to approach future humanitarian problems in a coherent manner which takes account of all their elements. We must develop better means of alleviating and preventing crises. We must improve our capacity to provide humanitarian assistance quickly. In order to establish an early warning system, I have requested the heads of the various agencies of the United Nations as well as those of my field offices to inform me, on an urgent basis, of any situation which in their view could give rise to a major humanitarian crisis. Such a system should enable the United Nations to react to cases of emergency more adequately and speedily. The problems are enormous, but I believe that the level of public and governmental consciousness of the need to provide assistance in great humanitarian tragedies is growing. It is a fundamental responsibility of the international community to come to the aid of its least fortunate and most afflicted members.

The growing problem of narcotic drugs has become a major international anxiety, not least because of its effect on the future of children and young people. It has become more and more evident that international and multilateral efforts provide the best hope for arresting and reducing the traffic in and use of drugs, which have such an appalling effect on both individuals and the societies in which they live. The institutions of the United Nations system, in co-operation with Governments and other groups concerned with the problem, are actively working to deal with it. Greater effort is needed, however, and, for my part, I have taken steps to improve the co-ordination within the United Nations system of this vital activity.

Finally I wish to mention the steady increase in various forms of politically motivated violence, including hijacking, kidnapping, car-bombing and assassination. Our society is in some sectors becoming an armed camp. Order, civility and even public life are under serious threat in many parts of the world. As usual, the toll of innocent victims is appalling. It is not enough to deplore or condemn or try to control such acts of violence. Attention has also to be focused on ways of dealing with the root causes of these phenomena.

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THE machinery of international co-operation must be serviced by an efficient and solid secretariat. One of my priorities is to improve the efficient functioning of the Secretariat, so that I may be able to satisfy Member States that all necessary human and other resources—but not more than is needed—are available and are being effectively used. To this end, last year I asked some of my senior colleagues to advise me on measures that could be taken to improve the administration and functioning of the Secretariat. On the basis of their advice, I have now decided on a number of actions designed either to increase efficiency or reduce costs, or both. For example, I have directed that there shall be a temporary suspension of recruitment. I shall report on these matters to the General Assembly in greater detail shortly. I very much hope that the Assembly will be mindful, in the resolutions it adopts, of my objectives.

The success of any programme for administrative improvement requires the active co-operation not only of all the members of the Secretariat but also of the Member States themselves. To this end I intend to ascertain the views of the membership on a number of approaches which I believe could with advantage be explored.

The General Assembly will be called upon to consider this year a number of issues of personnel policy including, in particular, those concerning salaries and other conditions of service of the staff. Different points of view inevitably will arise, and indeed have already been expressed to me, on the adequacy of these conditions of service. I am sure that Member States will recognize that the achievement of the highest standards of competence and integrity called for by the Charter requires corresponding and appropriate conditions of service.

The current system of salaries, allowances and pensions extends far beyond the United Nations itself. It affects all the agencies which, with the United Nations, participate in what has come to be known as the "common system". The General Assembly has repeatedly stressed the need to preserve and promote that linkage, without which the recruitment and administration of staff for the many participating organizations would be a chaotic exercise. The common system is also one in which a number of organs—notably the International Civil Service Commission and the Joint Staff Pension Board—have a regulatory role to play. I am confident that the discussion in the Assembly on these issues will take these facts into account.

* * *

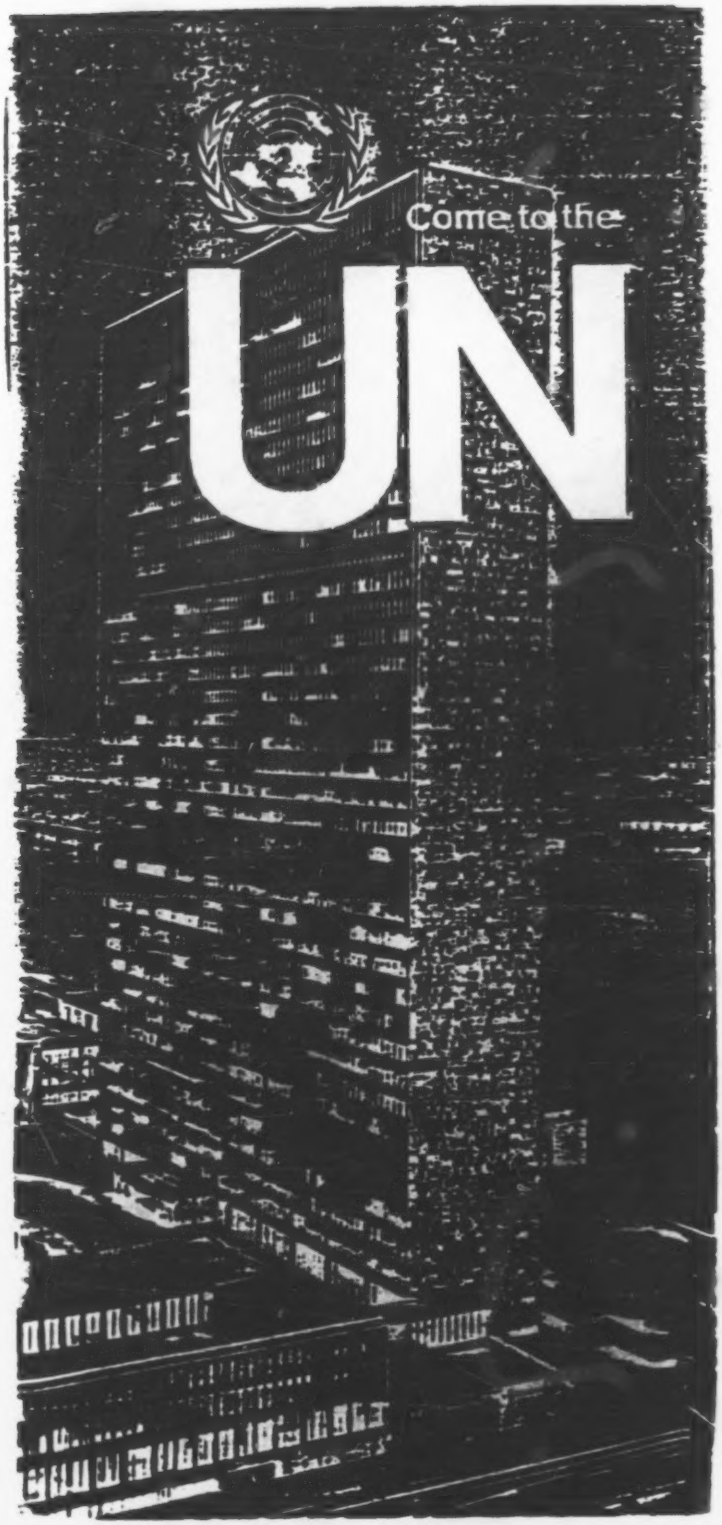
IN considering the purpose and necessity of multilateralism, we should not forget that national interest generally stands first in the priorities of Governments. There is also, however, a growing sense of the *international* interest, the common good of humanity, and the preservation and wise stewardship of the world's resources for the benefit of future generations. That is why there is a widespread commitment to the United Nations and a general interest in making the Organization work better. Quite naturally different Governments or groups of Governments have different ideas about the work of the United Nations and wish it to work on *their* terms. To make the United Nations work better, what is needed, above all, is a determined and persistent effort to strike a balance between national and international interest.

In conclusion, therefore, I wish to repeat my call for a multilateral and rational approach to the problems of international peace and development. I believe that this is what the peoples of the United Nations really desire in spite of all the difficulties and irritations encountered by Governments in trying to make a multilateral system work. It is widely understood that without such a system we shall run unacceptable risks and that it is therefore irresponsible to weaken the multilateral approach. Without the safety net which multilateral organization provides, the world would certainly be a much more dangerous and disorderly place.

In the United Nations we have now had nearly 40 years of experience, 40 years of change, and, for all the conflict of our time, 40 years without a global war. Let us look back at the road we have travelled, distil the experience and set out again refreshed and with a new determination. The purposes for which the United Nations was set up are essential for the future of our planet. The vision expressed in the Charter remains, and we should rally to it.

Javier PEREZ DE CUELLAR
Secretary-General

5 September 1984


Come to the
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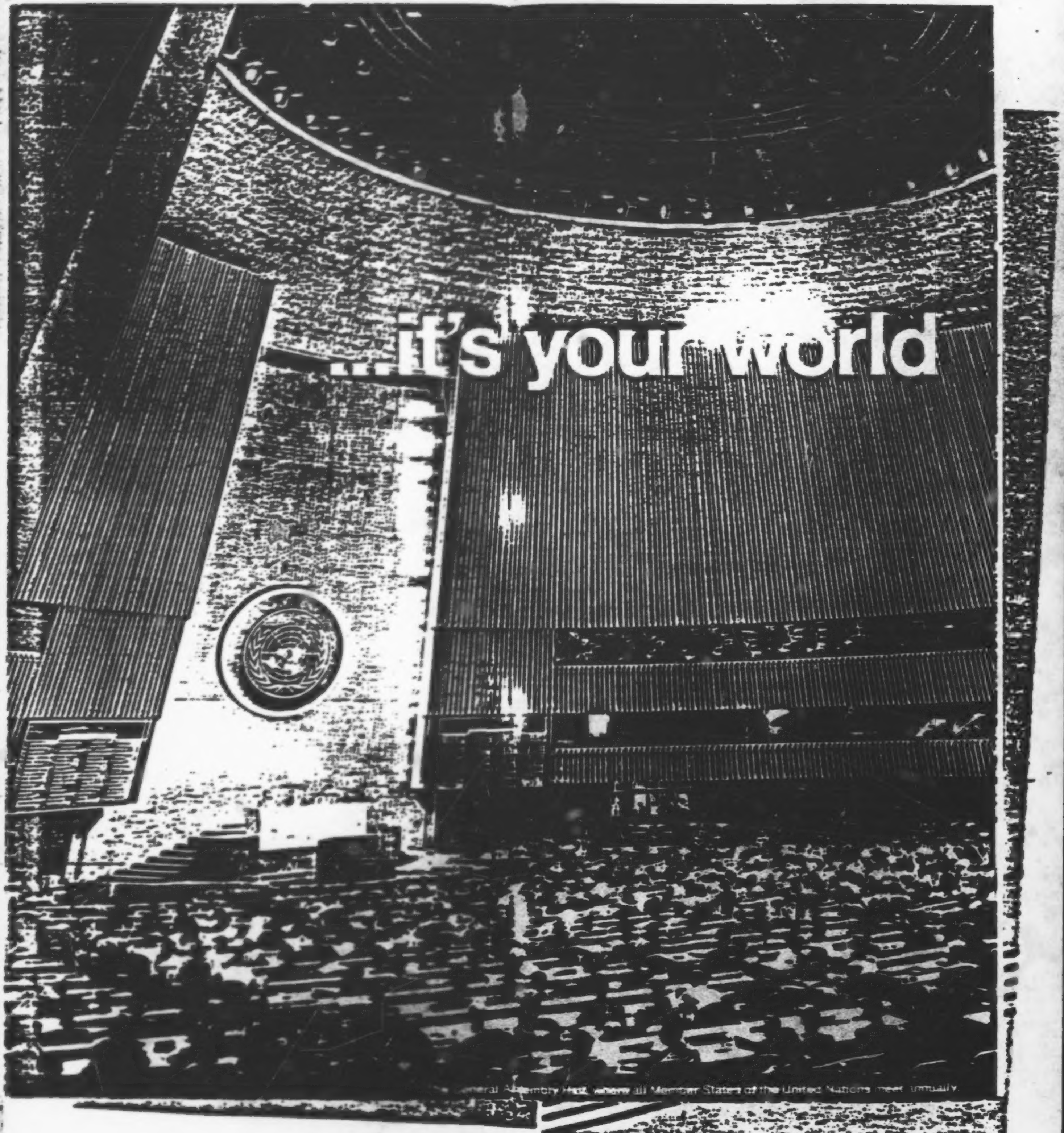

The General Assembly Hall, where all Member States of the United Nations meet annually.

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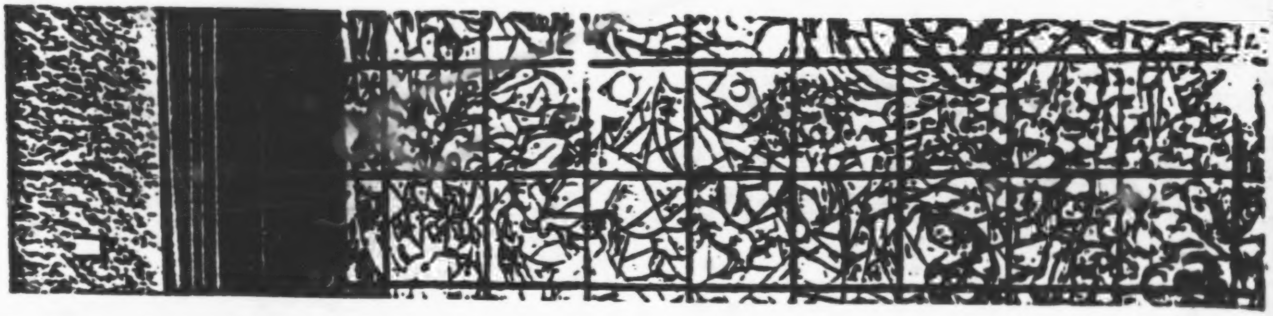


We the peoples of the United Nations..." With these opening words of the United Nations Charter, fifty nations, meeting in San Francisco in 1945, founded the new world Organization.

Since that time, in a little over three decades, more than 100 countries have joined the United Nations. Today, "we the peoples of the United Nations..." means hundreds of millions of people all around the world, united in a common resolve, as set forth in the Charter,

> to practice tolerance and live together in peace with one another as good neighbours, and
>
> to unite our strength to maintain international peace and security, and
>
> to ensure, by the acceptance of principles and the institution of methods, that armed force shall not be used, save in the common interest, and
>
> to employ international machinery for the promotion of the economic and social advancement of all peoples.

United Nations Headquarters, located in the heart of New York City, is the physical embodiment of the ideals and aspirations of the Charter—"a centre for harmonizing the actions of nations" in attaining mankind's common goals: international peace and security, economic and social progress, human rights and fundamental freedoms. Designed by an international group of noted architects and further enhanced by the work of artists of many lands, it has been the permanent home of the United Nations ever since 1950.

Through its doors pass not only statesmen and diplomats but people from every walk of life, all with one hope and one aim—to build a better, brighter world, a world we all want for ourselves, for our children and for our fellow men.

Here, men and women from all over the world work side by side, day by day, to strengthen peace, improve living conditions, guarantee human rights for all peoples everywhere. In the General Assembly Hall, in the Council chambers, in conference rooms and offices, the never-ending quest for peace and progress continues.

To visit United Nations Headquarters is to share in that common endeavour. You are always welcome at the UN—it's your world.

Planning Your Visit

Admission to Meetings
All but a very few meetings are open to the public and admission is free. Tickets are issued at the Information Desk in the Main Lobby of the General Assembly Building shortly before the time fixed for a meeting, on a first come, first served basis. Meetings normally begin at 10:30 a.m. and 3:00 p.m. For schedule of meetings on the day you plan to visit, phone 754-1234. Children under 12 are not admitted to official meetings, nor may they enter the premises unaccompanied by an adult.

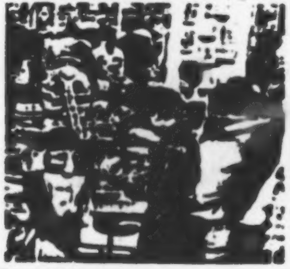
Guided Tours
Guided tours begin from the Main Lobby of the General Assembly Building every ten minutes or so from 9:00 a.m. to 4:45 p.m. daily. A minimal fee is charged to defray the expenses of the Guided Tours operation. Children under 5 years are not admitted on tours.

The tours last about one hour and include information on the aims, structure and activities of the United Nations, as well as an explanation of the art and architecture of the buildings.

Tours in languages other than English may be arranged. Wheelchairs and special guides will be provided whenever possible, but advance notice is required for these arrangements (phone 754-7713).

Groups of 15 or more persons should make arrangements as far in advance as possible by writing to the Group Programme Unit, Visitors' Section, Room GA-56, United Nations, New York 10017, or phoning 754-7713.

What You Can Buy
In the Public Concourse beneath the Main Lobby of the General Assembly Building the



The Gift Centre.

United Nations Headquarters is open to the public from 9:00 a.m. to 5:20 p.m. every day of the year except Christmas and New Year's Day and one additional day during Christmas week. Visitors planning to come to the UN during the holiday period should phone (754-1234) to make sure the buildings are open.

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visitor can purchase gifts and souvenirs, books and cards, stamps and commemorative medals.

The Bookshop.

Handicrafts from all over the world are on sale in the *Gift Centre*—wood and ivory carvings, hand-wrought jewellery, ethnic dolls, silk scarves, lacquerware, fine crystal and many other unusual and fascinating items typifying the crafts and cultures of member countries. The *Souvenir Shop* features miniature flags, United Nations pens and pins and a variety of exclusive souvenir items attractive to the younger set. All revenue from both these shops goes to the United Nations and helps support its activities.

In the *Bookshop* are hundreds of publications issued by the United Nations and its related agencies on the entire gamut of world problems—population, food, housing, environment, disarmament, economic development. Also on sale are postcards, United Nations calendars, records, slides and children's books, as well as magazines and booklets covering every phase of United Nations activities.

At the *United Nations Postal Administration's* counter visitors may purchase exclusive United Nations postage stamps, prized by collectors all over the world, both for their educational and philatelic value and as a means of supporting the United Nations. The UN Headquarters is the only place in the world where these stamps are valid for postage.

The Postal Sales Counter.

United Nations Commemorative Medals, valuable collectors' items, may also be purchased. The first commemorative medal was issued in 1970 to mark the twenty-fifth anniversary of the United Nations, and the first United Nations Peace Medal was issued on United Nations Day, 24 October 1971.

The United Nations Peace Medal.

Where to Eat

The Coffee Shop, in the Public Concourse, is open daily, seven days a week, from 9:30 a.m. to 5:00 p.m.

Visitors wishing to have lunch in the Delegates' Dining Room atop the Conference Building, overlooking the East River, are admitted from 11:30 a.m. on a first come, first served basis, Monday through Friday, as tables become available. A *de luxe* luncheon is served at reasonable prices. Groups of 15 or more persons should make arrangements for lunch by writing to the Group Programme Unit, Visitors' Section, United Nations, New York 10017, as far in advance as possible.

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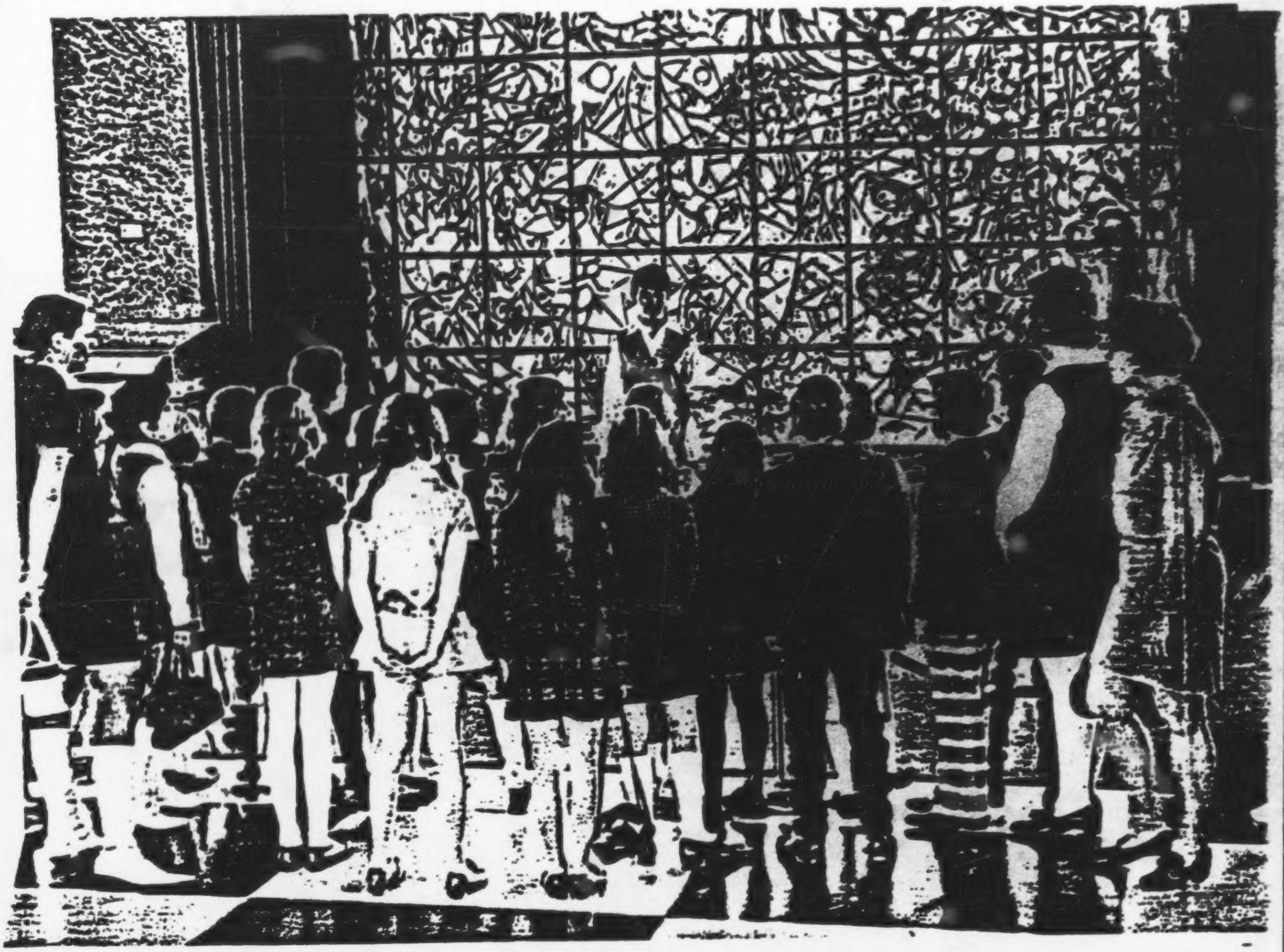

A group of young visitors to UN Headquarters, led by a UN guide, view the stained glass window by Marc Chagall, one of many works of art donated to the UN by noted artists.

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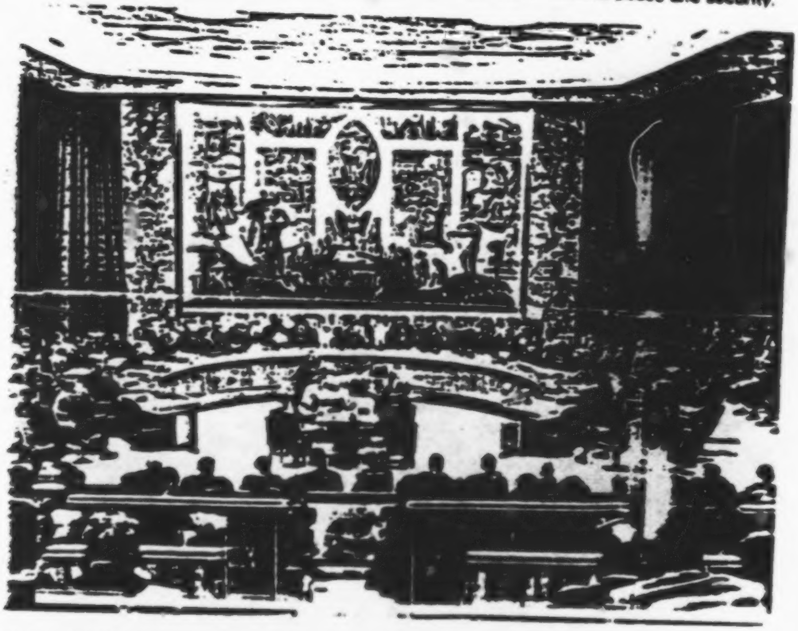
Below) The Security Council meets to discuss questions of international peace and security.



Bottom left) Visitors taking a quiet stroll in the UN Gardens.

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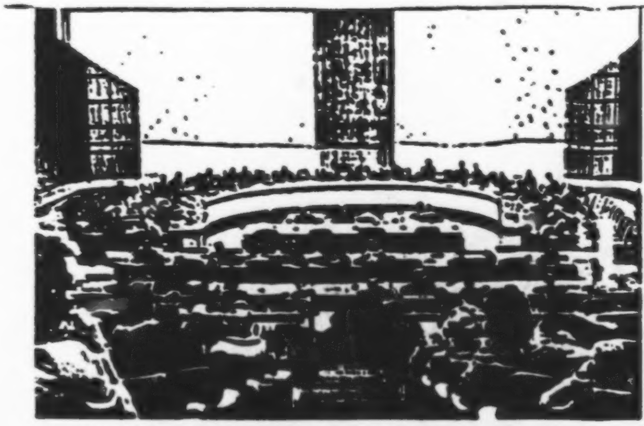
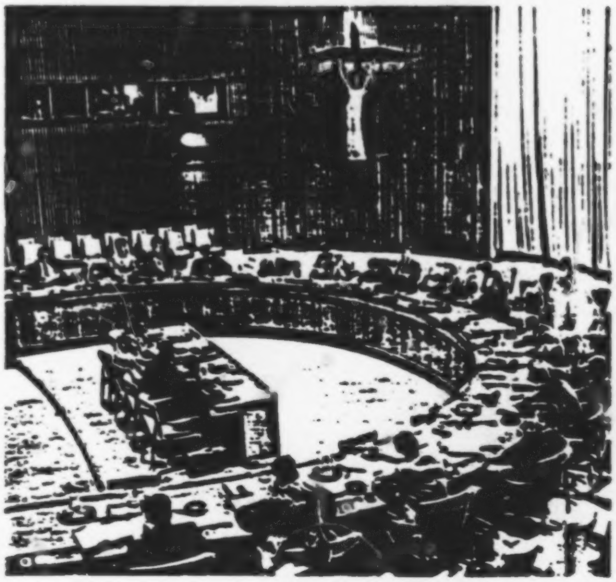
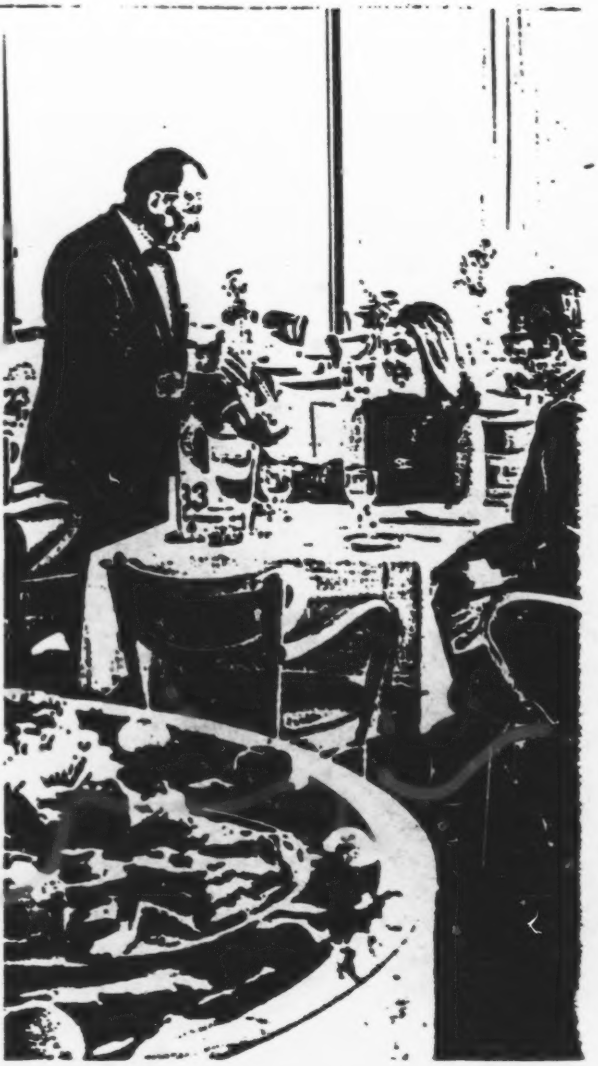


In the Economic and Social Council Chamber, members discuss world problems of economic development and social progress.



A meeting in session in the Trusteeship Council Chamber.



The Delegates' Dining Room is open to visitors for luncheon.

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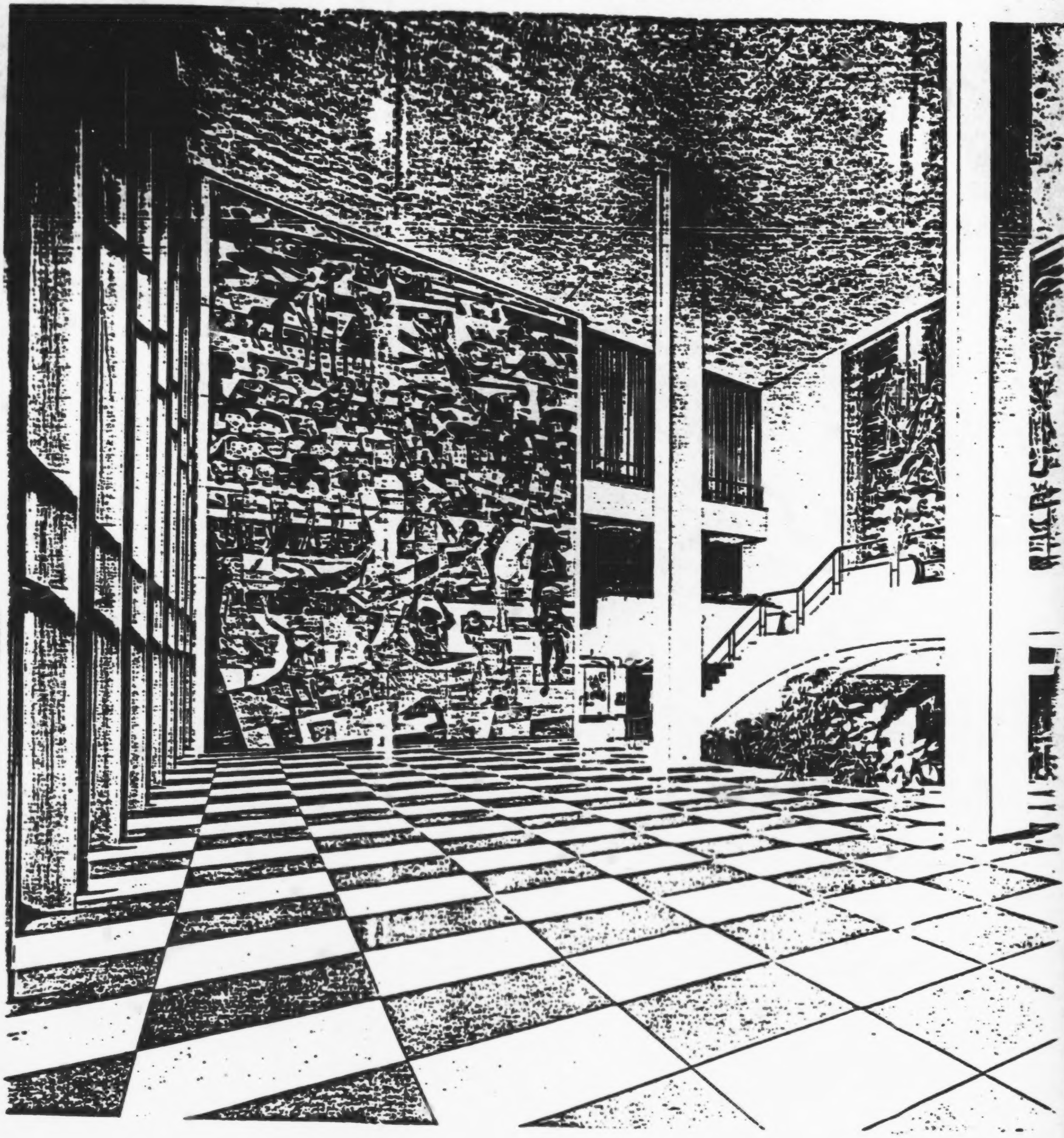
In the Delegates' Entrance Hall, a large mural (left) and tapestry (above the staircase) depict themes of peace, prosperity and equality.



In the Delegates' Entrance Hall, a large mural (left) and tapestry (above the staircase) depict themes of peace, prosperity and equality.

United Nations
Press Release

Department of Public Information
Press Section
United Nations, New York

Press Feature No. 216
November 1983

UNITED NATIONS HEADQUARTERS

Framed in marble, a meeting-place of peoples stands on New York's East River -- the Headquarters of the United Nations.

To these 16 acres come representatives of the earth's 4,510 million people, to discuss and decide issues of peace, justice and well-being. Here also, men and women of the United Nations work to carry out these decisions. This towering glass facade is a symbol, known the world over, of the United Nations.

It is not just a symbol, however, but a workshop that the visitor sees when he crosses United Nations Plaza to enter this international enclave. Its physical structure reflects the two types of work carried out at United Nations Headquarters. The delegates deliberate in the low, subtly curved General Assembly building and the adjoining Conference building, while the permanent staff services meetings, collects information and prepares reports in the 39-storey office structure known as the Secretariat building.

These contrasting architectural masses are placed so as to allow for a maximum of sunlight, space and greenery -- the fundamental element of modern urbanism. Full advantage is taken of the openness of the site on Manhattan's East River side. Functionalism is combined with majesty.

United Nations Headquarters was designed to serve four major groups: delegations, who now represent 158 Member States and who send more than 2,900 persons to New York each year for the General Assembly; the Secretariat, numbering about 5,095 in New York out of a total of over 16,000 throughout the world; visitors, who average 1,523 a day, and the "fourth estate" -- journalists -- of whom 300 are permanently accredited while twice that number are present during major meetings.

To accommodate these groups efficiently, there are separate facilities for each. The staff enter through the Secretariat building at East 43rd Street; delegates have an entrance at the west side of the General Assembly building at 44th Street; and visitors have access to the complex through the north end of the Assembly building, between 45th and 46th Streets. The general public may attend open meetings, for which admission tickets are made available without charge; may visit certain areas in the General Assembly building, and may tour other areas with United Nations guides.

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This 16-acre site is bounded on the north by East 48th Street, on the south by East 42nd Street, on the west by United Nations Plaza (a stretch of First Avenue) and on the east by the East River. The official address is United Nations, New York, N.Y. 10017.

Selecting New York

The decision to locate the United Nations near New York City was made in London by the General Assembly at its first session on 14 February 1946, after offers and suggestions for permanent sites had been received from many parts of the world. On 10 December 1945, the Congress of the United States had unanimously resolved to invite the United Nations to establish its permanent home in this country.

Following selection of the United States, a special United Nations site committee during the latter half of 1946 looked over possible locations in such places as Philadelphia, Boston and San Francisco. While consideration had been given in the first place to areas north of New York City, crowded Manhattan had not been seriously studied. But a last-minute offer of $8.5 million for the purchase of the present site, by John D. Rockefeller, Jr., was accepted by a large majority of the General Assembly on 14 December 1946. New York City completed the site parcel by additional gifts of property.

Planning Headquarters

Once the site had been settled upon, the next task was to design a group of buildings befitting the world Organization. Rather than hold an international competition, the United Nations decided that its new home should be the result of collaboration among eminent architects of many countries.

Wallace K. Harrison of the United States was appointed as chief architect, with the title of Director of Planning. To assist him, a 10-member Board of Design Consultants was selected, composed of architects nominated by Governments.

The members of the Board were N.D. Bassov (Soviet Union), Gaston Brunfaut (Belgium), Ernest Cormier (Canada), Charles E. Le Corbusier (France), Liang Ssu-cheng (China), Sven Markelius (Sweden), Oscar Niemeyer (Brazil), Howard Robertson (United Kingdom), G.A. Soilleux (Australia) and Julio Villamajo (Uruguay).

The Director and the Board began their work early in 1947, at an office in Rockefeller Center -- a group of commercial buildings in New York City for which Mr. Harrison had served as one of the principal architects. Some 50 basic designs were created, criticized, analysed and reworked. The planners took into account the structure of the United Nations, with its General Assembly, three main Councils and permanent Secretariat. They had to integrate the needs of Secretariat and delegation personnel with the requirements of modern skyscraper design.

The site chosen by the United Nations was a run-down area of slaughterhouses, light industry and a railroad barge landing. Trucks rumbled

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up and down First Avenue on one side, and automobiles sped along the East River Drive, since renamed for Franklin Delano Roosevelt, skirting the waterfront.

The physical problems of the site were well known to Mr. Harrison, who had previously drawn up plans for a group of commercial and residential buildings on the same site before it was made avilable to the United Nations. Because the area was relatively small, a tall building would be required to house offices. The presence of firm bedrock near the surface -- the Manhattan schist on which most New York skyscrapers rest -- would facilitate construction, the planners determined. (The bedrock dips to 60 or more feet below sea level between 46th and 47th Streets, where Turtle Bay stretched inland from the East River in the last century -- an area which now lies beneath the broad lawn to the north of the General Assembly building.)

It was decided to locate the Secretariat building at the south end of the site to facilitate access to and from public transport systems along 42nd Street. Its north-south orientation was selected partly for reasons of appearance and partly because a tall building on an east-west axis would have thrown its shadow over much of the site.

The designers conceived of a park-like plateau, from First Avenue to the river's edge, from which the buildings would rise. To utilize the area right up to the river, they decided that the landscaped area and the Conference building would be cantilevered over the Franklin D. Roosevelt Drive.

Although the United Nations was not bound to comply with local ordinances, the Headquarters was planned in compliance with New York City building regulations, since the City is responsible for fire protection. Water, electricity, steam and other utilities are purchased at commercial rates.

The original plan was estimated to cost nearly $85 million. At the direction of the Secretary-General, however, the designers cut the cost by $20 million, largely by reducing the height of the Secretariat building from 45 to 39 storeys, by diminishing the size of the conference areas and by utilizing an existing building on the site for the United Nations Library. The $65 million plan was approved by the General Assembly on 20 November 1947.

To finance construction, the United States Government made an interest-free loan of $65 million to the United Nations. Of this amount, the last instalment of $1 million was paid in 1982.

Construction of Buildings

With the plans approved, action to implement them moved ahead quickly. The 270 residential tenants were relocated at United Nations expense, and the meat packers and bargemen departed. The existing buildings were demolished, and between September 1948 and February 1949 excavators dug and blasted an enormous hole up to 31 feet deep.

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The construction contract was awarded to a combination of four large New York building firms in January 1949. Eighteen months later, on 21 August 1950, the vanguard of the Secretariat moved into their new home.

The major first addition to the Headquarters complex since then was the Dag Hammarskjöld Library, completed in 1961.

Over the years, the interiors of the buildings have been altered to accommodate the many States which have joined the Organization since its inception. In 1947, when construction plans were drawn up, there were 57 Member States and provision was made for an increase in membership to 70. This anticipated increase had been exceeded by 1955. A $3 million expansion programme, affecting mainly the meeting areas, was completed in 1964. It provided space for a membership of 126.

To accommodate the greatly expanded membership of the United Nations, the General Assembly in 1976 approved a set of major alterations to enlarge the seating capacity and otherwise refurbish the General Assembly hall and all the large conference rooms. The reconstruction and remodelling cost about $15 million. Alterations in all large conference rooms and the Trusteeship Council chamber as well as the work in the Assembly hall were completed in September 1980. Alterations were also made to the Security Council office and lounge area.

Two other construction projects expanded Headquarters facilities. The first, a modern documents reproduction plant, built at a cost of $25.6 million and completed in June 1981, centres around a small sunken atrium filled with dogwood, honey locust and crabapple, and occupies two levels beneath the broad lawn north of the Assembly building. The second project, which cost $8.7 million, was finished the following year: a 750-seat cafeteria for staff and delegates, located in a two-storey building at the south-east corner of the Secretariat building overlooking the East River. The lower storey of the cafeteria annex contains meeting rooms for language classes and translators' offices.

The growth of the staff, since it could not be accommodated in the existing Secretariat building, has made it necessary to rent office space in adjacent buildings. A large number of staff, including the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), now work in two UNDC Buildings, located across First Avenue on 44th Street. Erected by the United Nations Development Corporation -- a public benefit, non-profit organization created by New York State to provide facilities for the United Nations and related organizations -- the multi-use buildings also house a luxury hotel, apartments and a health club on floors not occupied by the United Nations.

Secretariat Building

The exterior facings of the 550-foot tall Secretariat building are exclusively of aluminium, glass and marble. Wide areas of green-tinted glass are unbroken by conventional setbacks. In contrast, the windowless north-south facades of the building are faced with 2,000 tons of Vermont marble. In addition to the 39 storeys above ground, there are three basements connecting with the three basements of the Conference building. Here is

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located a huge refrigeration plant for air-conditioning. Here also, below street level, are maintenance shops, a fire-fighting unit, receiving and loading platforms, a pouch dispatch unit, security offices, storage space, a three-level garage and an automobile service station.

Within the building, many modern conveniences have been provided for efficient functioning of the staff, although there is nothing elaborate and offices are generally small, with no wasted space. The glass in the aluminium-framed windows, letting in a maximum of light over the 20 acres of office space, is specially designed to help absorb the heat of the sun's rays. This, coupled with 4,000 under-the-window air-conditioning units, offers comfortable working conditions. A 12-degree temperature variation permits workers from some 150 nations to "tune in" on the weather desired.

Movable steel partitions which attach to brackets between the windows can be shifted quickly and easily to meet changing requirements for office space. Ducts under the floors provide telephone, electric and signalling connections at six-foot intervals. An integrated system of electric dumb-waiters and conveyors speeds the movement of documents and mail throughout the building.

General Assembly Building

The General Assembly building is a sloping structure with concave sides, 380 feet long and 160 feet wide, topped with a shallow dome. The north end, opening onto a landscaped plaza, is the main public entrance to the Headquarters complex. It is faced with specially designed translucent glass panels set into marble piers designed to give the public lobby a subdued, cathedral-like lighting. The east and west walls of the building are faced with English limestone, with panels and trimmings in marble matching the north and south ends of the Secretariat building. At the south end is a huge plate-glass window, 53-1/2 feet high, set in a deeply recessed marble frame, through which the delegates' lobby overlooks the Secretariat plaza.

The main visitors' entrance to the Headquarters is through the lobby of the Assembly building, with its clean, modern lines of cantilevered balconies and soft lighting. Beyond the lobby to the right is the small Meditation Room, whose focal point is a massive block of iron ore dimly spotlighted from above. Suspended from the ceiling above the stair landing connecting the lobby with the second-floor ceremonial entrance to the General Assembly hall is the Foucault pendulum, a gift of the Netherlands Government, offering visual proof of the rotation of the earth.

In the north-west part of the building's lobby, next to the Meditation Room entrance, is a 15-by-12 foot stained glass panel by Marc Chagall, symbolic of man's struggle for peace. Dedicated to the memory of Secretary-General Dag Hammarskjöld and 15 others who died with him in a plane crash in 1961, the panel was financed through contributions from United Nations staff members. Perpendicular to the Chagall window, four bronze plaques commemorate "military observers and members of the Secretariat who died in the line of duty while serving the United Nations on its missions of observation, mediation and conciliation". Facing the Meditation Room, on permanent display, is a facsimile of the United Nations Charter. (The original is preserved in the United States Archives in Washington, D.C.)

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The blue, green and gold General Assembly hall -- 165 feet long by 115 feet wide with a 75-foot ceiling -- occupies the second, third and fourth floors. Representatives of each Member State sit behind leather-covered tables facing a raised speakers' rostrum and podium. At the podium sits the President of the General Assembly, with the Secretary-General of the United Nations to his right and the Under-Secretary-General for Political and General Assembly Affairs to his left.

The Assembly hall was remodelled during 1979 to accommodate a maximum of 182 delegations. Each delegation has six seats -- three behind tables for full delegates and three in back of them for alternates. These 1,092 places fill the floor of the hall and three stepped platforms rising from the rear. Behind them there are places for 476 alternates, representatives of specialized agencies and other senior officers. At the sides are 187 seats for alternates, observers and others. In a balcony above is a row of 53 places for news media and 280 seats in five rows for the public. Chairs for 24 staff members who service the meetings are located at the sides of the podium.

All 2,103 seats are equipped with earphones, allowing the listener to "tune in" either to the language being spoken on the floor or to interpretations into any of the Assembly's six official languages -- Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish. The interpreters sit in glass-walled booths overlooking the hall. Similar booths are occupied by television and film cameramen, broadcasters and other information personnel, and official verbatim reporters.

Above and behind the speakers' rostrum are large panels listing the Member States of the Organization, where the results of votes are displayed. These panels are part of a mechanical voting system which permits delegates to vote by pressing buttons on the tables in front of them.

The inaugural meeting of the General Assembly in this hall was the opening of the seventh regular session on 14 October 1952.

On two lower levels of the building are a large conference room, four smaller conference rooms, radio and television studios, sound-recording facilities and a master control room, the centre of a communications system serving the entire Headquarters. For visitors, there is the United Nations Bookshop, a United Nations stamp sales counter, the Gift Centre, Souvenir Shop, coffee shop and other facilities.

Conference Building

The Conference building, connecting the General Assembly building with the Secretariat building, extends along the waterfront for 400 feet and is cantilevered over the Franklin D. Roosevelt Drive. Its narrow top level (fourth floor) contains the delegates' dining room (open to the public by reservation), private dining rooms, a staff cafe, a wall of vending machines for the use of staff members working night shifts and holidays, and a kitchen.

Below this, on the second and third floors, are three Council chambers. The Security Council chamber, just north of a delegates' small south lounge, was furnished by Norway and designed by the Norwegian Arnstein Arneberg. A

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large mural by Per Krohg of Norway, symbolizing the promise of future peace and individual freedom, covers most of the east wall. There are 232 seats for the public and 118 for the press.

The Trusteeship Council chamber, next door, was furnished by Denmark and designed by Finn Juhl, a Dane. Against one wall is a nine-foot statue of a woman with arms upraised, carved from teak by Henrik Starcke, also of Denmark. The chamber, its seating capacity for delegations expanded in 1978, has 164 seats for the public and 30 for the press. It is also used by Main Committees of the General Assembly, which are composed of all United Nations Members.

The Economic and Social Council chamber lies between the Trusteeship Council chamber and the north delegates' lounge, whose large glass wall faces north overlooking the gardens. The chamber was designed by Sven Markelius of Sweden and was furnished by that country. It was rearranged in 1974 to accommodate the expanded membership of the Council, which doubled from 27 to 54 in 1973. Its galleries have 336 seats for the public and 40 for the press.

Each of these three meeting rooms is 72 feet wide, 135 feet long and 24 feet high.

Beneath the Council chambers are three large conference rooms designed for the Assembly's Main Committees and six smaller conference rooms with no public accommodation.

More than half a mile of teak railing from Burma runs along three sides of an outside terrace on three levels of the Conference building.

Library Building

At the south-west corner of the site is the Dag Hammarskjöld Library, dedicated on 16 November 1961 in honour of the late Secretary-General. The building, in harmony with the architecture of the other United Nations structures and designed to meet the Organization's growing demands for library services, consists of six storeys -- three above ground and three below -- and a penthouse used for official United Nations receptions. The Library building measures 84 by 219 feet, with a net floor area sufficient to accommodate 400,000 volumes.

The main entrance to the Library, from the plaza in front of the Secretariat building, is located in the glass-enclosed corridor linking the two buildings.

On the three floors above ground are collections of United Nations, specialized agencies' and League of Nations documents, as well as general reference materials and maps. Visible from the plaza is the white pine-ceilinged, two-storey tall Woodrow Wilson Reading Room on the second floor. Below ground are a 195-seat auditorium and additional book stacks. The library staff of about 160 have offices in the building.

Construction of the Dag Hammarskjöld Library was made possible by a gift of $6.6 million from the Ford Foundation.

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Grounds and Furnishings

A colourful approach to the Headquarters is provided by the flags of the 158 United Nations Members, flying in a row more than 500 feet long along United Nations Plaza.

A circular fountain in front of the Secretariat building is a gift from the children of the United States, who donated $50,000 for its erection. The wavy pattern on the floor of the pool is formed by alternating bands of crushed white marble and black pebbles. The black stones, unobtainable from normal sources of supply, were gathered from the beaches of Rhodes by the women and children of that Greek island and donated to the United Nations.

A bronze sculpture in memory of the late Secretary-General Dag Hammarskjöld was set at the edge of the pool in 1964. The abstract sculpture, entitled "Single Form", is the work of the English artist Barbara Hepworth and was donated by Jacob Blaustein, a former United States delegate to the United Nations. Some 21 feet high, it stands on a granite plinth.

A bronze statue by Henry Moore, "Reclining Figure: Hand", is placed on the landscaped area north of the Secretariat building.

A Japanese bell and pagoda, donated by the United Nations Association of Japan, is located just west of the Conference building, between the Secretariat and Assembly buildings. Its base and surrounding floor are faced with stone quarried from the hills of Jerusalem and presented by Israel.

A monumental staircase, presented by the State of New York in memory of the late Secretary-General Hammarskjöld, leads from the plaza in front of the public entrance of the General Assembly building to the United Nations gardens. In these gardens, overlooking the East River, are three statues and a memorial to Eleanor Roosevelt.

Tons of topsoil and fertilizer were brought to the landscaped areas of the site to provide a planting place for the many varieties of trees, shrubs and flowers. Some 1,000 prize-winning rose bushes, 170 flowering cherry trees, 45 dwarf fruit trees and 25,000 daffodil bulbs, as well as a fine group of hawthorns, sweet gum, pin oaks, sycamores and honey locust trees, have helped transform the area from stone and steel to a green garden. Lining the asphalt walks are ilex, wisteria, rambler roses, and a ground cover of English ivy and grass. Many of the plantings were donated by groups or individuals.

In keeping with the international character of the Organization, materials for the Headquarters were selected from many lands. Limestone for the facings of the Assembly and Conference buildings came from the United Kingdom, marble from Italy, office furniture and shelving from France, chairs and fabrics from Czechoslovakia and Greece, carpets from England, France and Scotland. In addition, tables were purchased from Switzerland and various woods for interior finishings from Belgium, Canada Cuba, Guatemala, the Philippines, Norway and Zaire.

The only art work at Headquarters commissioned by the General Assembly is the painting entitled "Titans", by the United States artist Lumen Martin Winter. It commemorates the 1970 World Youth Assembly, held at Headquarters, and is located on the third floor in the passage connecting the Conference and General Assembly buildings. It was paid for by surplus voluntary funds donated for the Youth Assembly.

(more)

Gifts at Headquarters

Following is a list of gifts accepted by the United Nations and on display at Headquarters.

From Governments

Donor	Description	Location
Afghanistan	One medium size and four small rugs	Reception room, 38th floor
	Table	Reception room, 38th floor
Argentina and Sweden	Portrait of Dag Hammarskjöld, by Mrs. Celina D.M. de Mundin Schaffter	Main Reading Room, Library building
Australia	Lace-wood panelling	Reception room and two offices of executive suite, 2nd floor, General Assembly building
Austria	Tables and chairs	Coffee bar outside Conference Rooms 4 and 8, first basement, General Assembly building
Belgium	Mural tapestry, "Triumph of Peace" (43-1/2 x 28-1/2 feet), one of the largest ever woven	Delegates' lobby, General Assembly building
Brazil	Two murals, "War" and "Peace" (each 34 x 46 feet), by Candido Portinari	Delegates' lobby, General Assembly building
	Stainless steel sculpture, "Roots and Ties for Peace", by Yoland d'Augsburg	North garden
Bulgaria	Replica of a fresco depicting Bulgarian ruler, and his wife, Desislava	2nd floor neck area, between Conference and General Assembly buildings
Byelorussia	Oil painting, "Vechar" ("Evening")	Delegates' dining room
Canada	Seven ornamental metal doors	North entrance, General Assembly building
Chile	Painting, "Corazón de los Andes", by Nemesio Antuñez	First basement between Conference Rooms 5 and 6, General Assembly building
China	Tapestry, "The Great Wall"	Delegates' north lounge
	Ivory carving, the "Chengtu-Kunming Railway"	3rd floor neck area, between Conference and General Assembly buildings

(more)

Donor	Description	Location
Colombia	Mural painting, "Sunrise in the Andes", by Alejandro Obregón	Delegates' north lounge
Cyprus	Amphora of white painted ware (700-600 B.C.)	2nd floor corridor of Conference building opposite Trusteeship Council chamber
Denmark	Contribution for design and furnishing of chamber, statue by Henrik Starcke	Trusteeship Council chamber
Ecuador	Two rugs	First basement neck area between General Assembly and Conference buildings
Egypt	Gilded bronze statuette of the god Osiris	Delegates' lobby outside General Assembly hall, 2nd floor
Ethiopia	Ivory model of obelisk	South-east foyer, 2nd floor, General Assembly building
Finland	Stainless steel sculture, pre-study of a detail of monument to composer Jean Sibelius in Helsinki, by Eila Hiltunen	East side of the visitors' plaza
France	Tapestry, "Le Ciel", by Matisse	Secretary-General's office
	Two paintings, "Bord de la Rivière by Marquet and "Vue de Saint-Maximin" by Derain, on loan from Museum of Modern Art, Paris	Secretary-General's office
German Democratic Republic	Sculpture, "The Rising Man", by Fritz Cremer	North garden, adjacent to playground
Federal Republic of Germany	Interiors	Security Council delegates' lounge
Ghana	Kente cloth wall-hanging	South-east foyer, 2nd floor, General Assembly building
Greece	Cast of statue of Poseidon	Public lobby, General Assembly building
Greece (Rhodes)	Black pebbles	Fountain pool, Secretariat plaza

(more)

Donor	Description	Location
Holy See	Oil painting, "Christ Crucified", by Georges Rouault	Secretary-General's small reception room, GA-200, General Assembly building
	Framed ceramic sculpture, "Embrace of Peace", by Angelo Biancini	Secretary-General's office in Security Council chamber
	Mosaic reproduction "Dove of Peace"	South-east wall, General Assembly public lobby
Hungary	Hand-painted china vase	Corridor between Security Council and Trusteeship Council chambers, 2nd floor, Conference building
India	Rugs	Outside Conference Room 1, first basement, Conference building
	Black stone sculpture of sun god Surya (Pala dynasty, 11th century A.D.)	2nd floor neck area between General Assembly and Conference buildings
Indonesia	Two carved wooden figures, "Peace" and "Prosperity"	South-west foyer lounge, 2nd floor, General Assembly building
Iran	Persian carpet	South-east foyer, 2nd floor, General Assembly building
	Replica of "Edict of Cyrus"	2nd floor corridor outside Economic and Social Council chamber
Iraq	Replica of original stele enumerating laws of Hammurabi	2nd floor corridor, Conference building
Israel	Jerusalem stone	Landscaped area north-west of Secretariat building
Latin American Group	Plaque honouring Benito Juárez	West foyer lounge, 2nd floor, General Assembly building
	Bronze plaque by Marisol Escobar commemorating 150th anniversary of Amphictyonic Congress of Panama and paying tribute to Simón Bolívar, Liberator	South-east corner of plaza in front of Secretariat building
Lebanon	Sarcophagus replica	Within stairwell, 2nd floor neck area, between General Assembly and Conference buildings

(more)

Donor	Description	Location
Liberia	Wood table with ivory inlay	Public lobby outside Conference Room 4, General Assembly building
Mali	Painted cotton "Dansa" wall hanging	Secretary-General's executive office, Room S-3802
	Carved ebony antelope headdress	End of corridor within Security Council offices
Malta	Abstract painting by Emanuel V. Cremona	2nd floor corridor outside west foyer, General Assembly building
Mexico	Copy of stone head of Mayan priest	Secretary-General's reception room
	Painting, "Brotherhood", by Rufino Tamayo	Public lobby, General Assembly building
Morocco	Mosaic panel, with inscription from United Nations Charter on tiles	2nd floor neck area, between General Assembly and Conference buildings
Netherlands	Foucault pendulum	Public lobby, General Assembly building
New Zealand	Rimu panelling	Delegates' lobby, 1st floor, General Assembly building
Nigeria	Bronze sculpture, "Anyanwu" ("Sun"), by Ben Enwonwu	Outside Trusteeship Council chamber, 2nd floor corridor
Norway	Contribution for design and furnishing, mural by Per Krohg	Security Council chamber
Oman	Sterling silver coffee pot and surround	Delegates' dining room entrance
Pakistan	Paintings by Chugtai	Delegates' dining room
Peru	Ceremonial burial mantle (2,000-3,000 years old)	South-west foyer lounge, 2nd floor, outside General Assembly hall
Poland	Granite bust of Polish astronomer Nicolaus Copernicus	First floor passage to Library building
	Three picture cut-outs of ornamental birds	Delegates' dining room
Portugal	Tapestry, "Mar e Terra", by Camarinha	Delegates' private dining room, 4th floor, Conference building
Romania	Mural tapestry, "Ode to Man"	Delegates' north lounge, Conference building

(more)

Donor	Description	Location
Saudi Arabia	"Kiswa", a black silk curtain embroidered in silver and gold, formerly curtain of door of Holy Kaaba in Makkah	South-west foyer, 2nd floor, outside General Assembly hall
Senegal	Tapestry, "Maaggala Tuubaa" ("Pilgrimage to Tuba"), by Papa Ibra Tall	South-west foyer lounge, 2nd floor, General Assembly building
Singapore	Scroll painting	Security Council President's office 2nd floor, Conference building
Spain	Bronze bust of Padre Francisco de Vitoria	North-west area of garden
Sri Lanka	Oil painting, "Rice Cultivators of Ceylon", by Senaka Senanayake	East entrance to General Assembly hall, 2nd floor
Suriname	Mahogany sculpture, "Woman as Mother Deep in Thought", by Johan H.A. Pinas	Secretary-General's small reception room, GA-200, General Assembly building
Sweden	Contribution for design and furnishing	Economic and Social Council chamber
	Iron ore slab	Meditation Room
Switzerland	World clock	General Assembly hall, reception area
Syria	Replica of sculptural relief depicting the goddess Ishtar	North-east wall of passage between Conference and General Assembly buildings, 2nd floor
Thailand	Teak and leather furniture	Delegates' lobby, 2nd floor, north of General Assembly hall
Tunisia	Third century mosaic mural	Entrance, delegates' north lounge, Conference building
Turkey	Kadesh peace treaty replica	2nd floor corridor, facing entrance to Security Council chamber
	Rugs	General Assembly executive offices, 2nd floor, General Assembly building
Ukraine	Wool carpet and porcelain vase	2nd floor of Conference building outside delegates' south lounge

(more)

Donor	Description	Location
USSR	Model of Sputnik (first space satellite)	Public lobby, General Assembly building
	Bronze sculpture, "Let Us Beat Swords into Plowshares", by Evgeny Vuchetich	North garden
United Kingdom	Oak panelling and furniture	Conference Room 8, General Assembly building
	Painting, "Vortex", by Stuart Armfield	Outside south delegates' lounge, Conference building
United States	Moon rock and United Nations flag carried on trip of Apollo 11	Public lobby outside Conference Room 4, General Assembly building
United States (New York City*)	Ornamental fence	Along United Nations Plaza
United States (New York State)	Memorial stairway and flagstaff	North garden
Upper Volta	Burnished cowhide	Office of the Deputy to the Under-Secretary-General for Political Affairs, Trusteeship and Decolonization, 33rd floor
Yugoslavia	Bronze sculpture, "Peace", by Anton Augustincić	North garden

(more)

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* New York City has made many other contributions for the completion of the Headquarters and improvement of adjacent areas, including the tunnel carrying First Avenue traffic beneath United Nations Plaza, the widening of East 47th Street between Second Avenue and United Nations Plaza (a block which has been renamed Dag Hammarskjöld Plaza), and the reconstruction of the East 42nd Street approach to the Headquarters. In 1980, the small municipal park at the foot of the "Isaiah Wall" and facing the United Nations Secretariat building across the street was renamed the Ralph J. Bunche Memorial Park by the city. A stainless steel obelisk, "Peace Form One", by Daniel LaRue Johnson, erected there by the Phelps-Stoke Fund, commemorates the late Under-Secretary-General and Nobel Peace Prize winner.

From Organizations or Individuals

Donor	Description	Location
African Bureau	Bronze bust of Chief Hosea Kutako of Namibia	Exhibit area, 1st floor, General Assembly building
Muhammad Ali	Painting of United Nations	3rd floor, Conference building, outside Security Council chamber
All American Rose Selections, Inc.	1,500 rose bushes	Gardens
American Association for the United Nations	Contribution ($50,000) from school children	For fountain pool, Secretariat plaza
American Needlepoint Guild	Peace Rug, depicting national crests of 138 Member States with United Nations seal in centre	Public lobby, General Assembly building
Anonymous donor	Murals by Fernand Léger	General Assembly hall
Association for the Help of Retarded Children	Bust of Eleanor Roosevelt	Exhibit area, 1st floor, General Assembly building
Austrian Chamber of Commerce	Design and redecoration of Secretary-General's office and dining room; wood panelling and furnishing	38th floor
Jacob Blaustein (United States)	Sculpture, "Single Form", by Barbara Hepworth	Secretariat plaza
Camp Fire Girls Council of Greater New York	Pin oak tree	North garden
Salvador Dali (United States)	Painting, "Clasped Hands", by Dali	Postal sales area, General Assembly building
Marshall Field family	Fresco by Swedish artist Bo Beskow	Meditation Room
Ford Foundation	Dag Hammarskjöld Library building	
	Murals by Bo Beskow ("Composition for a Concave Wall") and Fritz Glarner ("Relational Painting No. 90")	Penthouse and 1st-floor staircase, Library building

(more)

Donor	Description	Location
Ford Foundation and Bonniers Swedish Publishing House	Portrait of Dag Hammarskjöld, by Bo Beskow	North wall, Secretariat lobby
Friends of the United Nations Meditation Room	Contribution ($12,600) from private contributors	Meditation Room
Friends of U Thant	Portrait of U Thant, by James Fosberg	Secretariat lobby
Guggenheim Foundation	Mural by José Vela Zanetti	Corridor, 3rd floor, Conference building
Japan Buddhist	Silk brocade tapestry	Archives Reference Service, 345 Park Avenue South
Mrs. Albert D. Lasker (United States)	Tapestry of Picasso painting, "Femme sur l'échelle" ("Woman on a Ladder")	Delegates' south lounge
Mrs. Albert D. Lasker and family	170 flowering cherry trees, 25,000 daffodil bulbs, azalea plantings	Gardens
Henry Moore Foundation	Statue by Henry Moore, "Reclining Figure: Hand"	Landscaped area north of Secretariat building
National Council for United States Art	Three pieces of contemporary American sculpture	Lobby of Meditation Room; office of Secretary-General; east exterior wall of General Assembly building
Norwegian Friends of Trygve Lie	Portrait of Trygve Lie by Harald Dal	Secretariat lobby
Public	Contribution ($5,000) for furnishings	Meditation Room
Eleanor Roosevelt Memorial Foundation	Granite bench and slab in memory of Mrs. Roosevelt	North garden
Sveriges Stenindustriforbund (Sweden)	Marble floor	Economic and Social Council chamber
United Nations Association of Japan	Bronze bell and housing	Landscaped area north-west of Secretariat building
United Nations Association of the United States of America	Portrait of Kurt Waldheim, by Raymond Kintsler	Secretariat lobby

(more)

Donor	Description	Location
nited Nations International School (on loan to the United Nations)	Bronze head of Pablo Casals	Public lobby, General Assembly building
nited Nations staff and Marc Chagall	Contribution (over $17,000) for Marc Chagall stained glass panel	Outside Meditation Room, General Assembly public lobby
niversal Postal Union	Two-part bronze sculpture	Exhibit area, 1st floor, General Assembly building
homas J. Watson (United States)	Portable stage for concerts	General Assembly hall
oodrow Wilson Foundation	Bust of Woodrow Wilson	Woodrow Wilson Reading Room, Library building
omen's Club of Osaka, Japan	Three Rosashi embroideries	Delegates' dining room entrance
omen's Organizations of the Presbyterian Church in the USA	Ecuadorian rugs	First basement, between General Assembly and Conference buildings

(more)

Facts and Figures

-- The Headquarters site is owned by the United Nations and is international territory. Under special agreement with the United States, certain privileges and immunities have been granted, but generally the laws of New York City, New York State and the United States apply.

-- The original construction and related costs for the Headquarters buildings were $67,093,290, plus an additional $6,703,567 for the Dag Hammarskjöld Library. Costs for the North Lawn reproduction plant building were $25,600,000; for the new cafeteria annex, $8,690,000. Land for the site was valued at $9,600,000.

-- Some 3,500 meetings are held at Headquarters each year.

-- Most signs throughout the Headquarters are in English and French, two of the official "working languages" of the Organization.

-- The 5,638 windows at Headquarters require the full-time services of three window-washers.

-- More than 18 miles of carpeting, in strips 27 inches wide, are used throughout Headquarters.

-- There are about 5,000 typewriters in use, with keyboards for typing in the six working languages -- Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish -- of the Organization. Word processing was introduced in the United Nations in 1977. Twenty-two word-processing systems are installed in various United Nations Headquarters locations with over 255 work stations. Nearly every department uses the equipment for the production of reports, correspondence, statistical tables and other material. The largest user is the Department of Conference Services which has installed seven systems in the English, French and Spanish stenographic units to handle production of United Nations documents. A computer terminal providing direct access for United Nations translators, revisers and terminologists to a terminology data bank at the Canadian Translation Bureau in Ottawa was a recent gift of Canada. In exchange for access to data, the United Nations will supply the computer system with its own terminology data.

-- A United Nations Post Office is located in the first basement of the Secretariat building, providing all the services of a regular post office but selling only United Nations postage stamps which may be used solely for mail posted at United Nations Headquarters. A philatelic stamp counter is operated by the United Nations Postal Administration in the concourse (lower) level of the public lobby, General Assembly building. United Nations postage-stamp sales total almost $28.5 million a year.

-- Nearly 69 million words are sent to or from Headquarters every year in official United Nations cables. About 51,000 diplomatic mail pouches are sent to some 139 destinations each year. In turn, some 22,700 pouches are received.

(more)

-- The documents reproduction facilities turn out more than 706 million page-units each year. Laid end-to-end, these would stretch nearly 122,569 miles, or nearly five times around the earth at the Equator.

-- United Nations radio programmes are broadcast in some 25 languages to 167 countries and territories.

-- United Nations staff members at Headquarters number approximately 5,100, with a total world-wide staff of about 16,000. Headed by the Secretary-General, who is the chief administrative officer, members of the staff are international civil servants recruited from more than 146 countries. They are bound by oath not to seek or receive instructions regarding their work for the United Nations from any Government or outside authority.

-- Approximately 300 press and radio correspondents and 110 photographers are permanently accredited to the United Nations, while an additional 300 hold temporary accreditation at any given time. Major news services and newspapers have offices on the third and fourth floors of the Secretariat building.

-- Approximately 50,000 requests from the public for information on the United Nations are answered a year. In certain years, however, the number can double. More than 25 million visitors have taken guided tours of Headquarters, offered in more than 25 languages. There is a guide who conducts tours in sign language for the hearing impaired.

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United Nations Press Release

Department of Public Information
Press Section
United Nations, New York

ORG/1015
21 September 1984

MEMBER STATES OF THE UNITED NATIONS

The 159 Member States of the United Nations, with the dates on which they became Members, are listed below:

Member	Date of Admission
Afghanistan	19 Nov. 1946
Albania	14 Dec. 1955
Algeria	8 Oct. 1962
Angola	1 Dec. 1976
Antigua and Barbuda	11 Nov. 1981
Argentina	24 Oct. 1945
Australia	1 Nov. 1945
Austria	14 Dec. 1955
Bahamas	18 Sep. 1973
Bahrain	21 Sep. 1971
Bangladesh	17 Sep. 1974
Barbados	9 Dec. 1966
Belgium	27 Dec. 1945
Belize	25 Sep. 1981
Benin	20 Sep. 1960
Bhutan	21 Sep. 1971
Bolivia	14 Nov. 1945

(more)

Member	Date of Admission
Botswana	17 Oct. 1966
Brazil	24 Oct. 1945
Brunei Darussalam	21 Sep. 1984
Bulgaria	14 Dec. 1955
Burkina Faso	20 Sep. 1960
Burma	19 Apr. 1948
Burundi	18 Sep. 1962
Byelorussia	24 Oct. 1945
Cameroon	20 Sep. 1960
Canada	9 Nov. 1945
Cape Verde	16 Sep. 1975
Central African Republic	20 Sep. 1960
Chad	20 Sep. 1960
Chile	24 Oct. 1945
China	24 Oct. 1945
Colombia	5 Nov. 1945
Comoros	12 Nov. 1975
Congo	20 Sep. 1960
Costa Rica	2 Nov. 1945
Cuba	24 Oct. 1945
Cyprus	20 Sep. 1960
Czechoslovakia	24 Oct. 1945
Democratic Kampuchea	14 Dec. 1955
Democratic Yemen	14 Dec. 1967
Denmark	24 Oct. 1945

(more)

Member	Date of Admission
Djibouti	20 Sep. 1977
Dominica	18 Dec. 1978
Dominican Republic	24 Oct. 1945
Ecuador	21 Dec. 1945
Egypt*	24 Oct. 1945
El Salvador	24 Oct. 1945
Equatorial Guinea	12 Nov. 1968
Ethiopia	13 Nov. 1945
Fiji	13 Oct. 1970
Finland	14 Dec. 1955
France	24 Oct. 1945
Gabon	20 Sep. 1960
Gambia	21 Sep. 1965
German Democratic Republic	18 Sep. 1973
Germany, Federal Republic of	18 Sep. 1973
Ghana	8 Mar. 1957
Greece	25 Oct. 1945
Grenada	17 Sep. 1974
Guatemala	21 Nov. 1945
Guinea	12 Dec. 1958

(more)

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* Egypt and Syria were original Members of the United Nations from 24 October 1945. Following a plebiscite on 21 February 1958, the United Arab Republic was established by a union of Egypt and Syria and continued as a single Member. On 13 October 1961, Syria, having resumed its status as an independent State, resumed its separate membership in the United Nations.

Member	Date of Admission
Guinea-Bissau	17 Sep. 1974
Guyana	20 Sep. 1966
Haiti	24 Oct. 1945
Honduras	17 Dec. 1945
Hungary	14 Dec. 1955
Iceland	19 Nov. 1946
India	30 Oct. 1945
Indonesia*	28 Sep. 1950
Iran	24 Oct. 1945
Iraq	21 Dec. 1945
Ireland	14 Dec. 1955
Israel	11 May 1949
Italy	14 Dec. 1955
Ivory Coast	20 Sep. 1960
Jamaica	18 Sep. 1962
Japan	18 Dec. 1956
Jordan	14 Dec. 1955
Kenya	16 Dec. 1963
Kuwait	14 May 1963
Lao People's Democratic Republic	14 Dec. 1955

(more)

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* By letter of 20 January 1965, Indonesia announced its decision to withdraw from the United Nations "at this stage and under the present circumstances". By telegram of 19 September 1966, it announced its decision "to resume full co-operation with the United Nations and to resume participation in its activities". On 28 September 1966, the General Assembly took note of this decision and the President invited representatives of Indonesia to take seats in the Assembly.

Member	Date of Admission
Lebanon	24 Oct. 1945
Lesotho	17 Oct. 1966
Liberia	2 Nov. 1945
Libya	14 Dec. 1955
Luxembourg	24 Oct. 1945
Madagascar	20 Sep. 1960
Malawi	1 Dec. 1964
Malaysia*	17 Sep. 1957
Maldives	21 Sep. 1965
Mali	28 Sep. 1960
Malta	1 Dec. 1964
Mauritania	27 Oct. 1961
Mauritius	24 Apr. 1968
Mexico	7 Nov. 1945
Mongolia	27 Oct. 1961
Morocco	12 Nov. 1956
Mozambique	16 Sep. 1975
Nepal	14 Dec. 1955
Netherlands	10 Dec. 1945
New Zealand	24 Oct. 1945
Nicaragua	24 Oct. 1945

(more)

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* The Federation of Malaya joined the United Nations on 17 September 1957. On 16 September 1963, its name was changed to Malaysia, following the admission to the new federation of Singapore, Sabah (North Borneo) and Sarawak. Singapore became an independent State on 9 August 1965 and a Member of the United Nations on 21 September 1965.

Member	Date of Admission
Niger	20 Sep. 1960
Nigeria	7 Oct. 1960
Norway	27 Nov. 1945
Oman	7 Oct. 1971
Pakistan	30 Sep. 1947
Panama	13 Nov. 1945
Papua New Guinea	10 Oct. 1975
Paraguay	24 Oct. 1945
Peru	31 Oct. 1945
Philippines	24 Oct. 1945
Poland	24 Oct. 1945
Portugal	14 Dec. 1955
Qatar	21 Sep. 1971
Romania	14 Dec. 1955
Rwanda	18 Sep. 1962
Saint Christopher and Nevis	23 Sep. 1983
Saint Lucia	18 Sep. 1979
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	16 Sep. 1980
Samoa	15 Dec. 1976
Sao Tome and Principe	16 Sep. 1975
Saudi Arabia	24 Oct. 1945
Senegal	28 Sep. 1960
Seychelles	21 Sep. 1976
Sierra Leone	27 Sep. 1961
Singapore	21 Sep. 1965
Solomon Islands	19 Sep. 1978

(more)

Member	Date of Admission
Somalia	20 Sep. 1960
South Africa	7 Nov. 1945
Spain	14 Dec. 1955
Sri Lanka	14 Dec. 1955
Sudan	12 Nov. 1956
Suriname	4 Dec. 1975
Swaziland	24 Sep. 1968
Sweden	19 Nov. 1946
Syria*	24 Oct. 1945 (resumed 13 Oct. 1961)
Thailand	16 Dec. 1946
Togo	20 Sep. 1960
Trinidad and Tobago	18 Sep. 1962
Tunisia	12 Nov. 1956
Turkey	24 Oct. 1945
Uganda	25 Oct. 1962
Ukraine	24 Oct. 1945
Union of Soviet Socialist Republics	24 Oct. 1945
United Arab Emirates	9 Dec. 1971
United Kingdom	24 Oct. 1945

(more)

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* Egypt and Syria were original Members of the United Nations from 24 October 1945. Following a plebiscite on 21 February 1958, the United Arab Republic was established by a union of Egypt and Syria and continued as a single Member. On 13 October 1961, Syria, having resumed its status as an independent State, resumed its separate membership in the United Nations.

Member	Date of Admission
United Republic of Tanzania*	14 Dec. 1961
United States	24 Oct. 1945
Uruguay	18 Dec. 1945
Vanuatu	15 Sep. 1981
Venezuela	15 Nov. 1945
Viet Nam	20 Sep. 1977
Yemen	30 Sep. 1947
Yugoslavia	24 Oct. 1945
Zaire	20 Sep. 1960
Zambia	1 Dec. 1964
Zimbabwe	25 Aug. 1980

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* Tanganyika was a Member of the United Nations from 14 December 1961 and Zanzibar was a Member from 16 December 1963. Following the ratification on 26 April 1964 of Articles of Union between Tanganyika and Zanzibar, the United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar continued as a single Member, changing its name to the United Republic of Tanzania on 1 November 1964.

United Nations
Press Release

Department of Public Information
Press Section
United Nations, New York

ORG/1004
12 January 1984

MEMBERSHIP OF PRINCIPAL UNITED NATIONS ORGANS IN 1984

GENERAL ASSEMBLY

The General Assembly is composed of all 158 United Nations Member States. The States, and the dates on which they became Members, are listed in Press Release ORG/999, issued 23 September 1983.

SECURITY COUNCIL

The Security Council has 15 members. The Charter has designated five States as permanent members, and the General Assembly elects 10 other members for two-year terms. The term of office of each non-permanent member of the Council ends on 31 December of the year indicated in parentheses below.

The five permanent members of the Security Council are China, France, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom and the United States.

The 10 non-permanent members of the Security Council in 1984 are Egypt (1985), India (1985), Malta (1984), Netherlands (1984), Nicaragua (1984), Pakistan (1984), Peru (1985), Ukraine (1985), Upper Volta (1985) and Zimbabwe (1984).

(more)

For information media — not an official record

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COUNCIL

The Economic and Social Council has 54 members elected for three-year terms by the General Assembly. The term of office for each member expires on 31 December of the year indicated in parentheses below. In 1984, the Council is so far composed of the following 53 States (the remaining member has yet to be elected):

Algeria (1985)
Argentina (1986)
Austria (1984)
Benin (1984)
Botswana (1985)
Brazil (1984)
Bulgaria (1985)
Canada (1986)
China (1986)
Colombia (1984)
Congo (1985)
Costa Rica (1986)
Djibouti (1985)
Ecuador (1985)
Finland (1986)
France (1984)
German Dem. Rep. (1985)
Fed. Rep. of Germany (1984)
Greece (1984)
Indonesia (1986)
Japan (1984)
Lebanon (1985)
Liberia (1984)
Luxembourg (1985)
Malaysia (1985)
Mali (1984)
Mexico (1985)
Netherlands (1985)
New Zealand (1985)
Papua New Guinea (1986)
Pakistan (1984)
Poland (1986)
Portugal (1984)
Qatar (1984)
Romania (1984)
Rwanda (1986)
Saint Lucia (1984)
Saudi Arabia (1985)
Sierra Leone (1985)
Somalia (1986)
Sri Lanka (1986)
Suriname (1985)
Swaziland (1984)
Sweden (1986)
Thailand (1985)
Tunisia (1984)
Uganda (1986)
USSR (1986)
United Kingdom (1986)
United States (1985)
Venezuela (1984)
Yugoslavia (1986)
Zaire (1986)

TRUSTEESHIP COUNCIL

The Trusteeship Council has five members. One member, the United States, administers the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands. The non-administering members -- China, France, the Soviet Union and the United Kingdom -- are the other four permanent members of the Security Council. China does not participate in the Trusteeship Council's work.

(more)

INTERNATIONAL COURT OF JUSTICE

The International Court of Justice has 15 members, elected by both the General Assembly and the Security Council. Judges hold nine-year terms, which end on 5 February of the year indicated in parentheses below.

The Judges, listed in their official order of precedence, are:

Taslim Olawale Elias of Nigeria (1985), President of the Court
Jose Sette Camara of Brazil (1988), Vice-President
Manfred Lachs of Poland (1985)
Platon Dmitrievich Morozov of the Soviet Union (1988)
Nagendra Singh of India (1991)
Jose Maria Ruda of Argentina (1991)
Hermann Mosler of the Federal Republic of Germany (1985)
Shigeru Oda of Japan (1985)
Roberto Ago of Italy (1988)
Abdallah Fikri El-Khani of Syria (1985)
Stephen Schwebel of the United States (1988)
Robert Y. Jennings of the United Kingdom (1991)
Guy Ladreit de Lacharriere of France (1991)
Keba Mbaye of Senegal (1991)
Mohammed Bedjaoui of Algeria (1988)

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Press Release

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UNITED NATIONS CONFERENCES AND SPECIAL OBSERVANCES

A number of major United Nations conferences on issues of international concern are scheduled to take place during 1984.

In July, the Second International Conference on Assistance to Refugees in Africa will be held at Geneva to review the results of the 1981 Conference on the same subject, as well as to consider the continuing need for assistance, relief, rehabilitation and resettlement programmes, and their impact on the economies of the African countries concerned.

In August, the International Conference on Population will meet in Mexico City to discuss "selected issues of the highest priority, giving full recognition to the relationships between population, social and economic development".

September is the tentative date for the Review Conference of the Parties to the Convention on the Prohibition of Military or Any Other Hostile Use of Environmental Modification Techniques, to be held at Geneva.

In addition, the United Nations will observe in 1984 the first full year of the Second Decade to Combat Racism and Racial Discrimination, which began in December 1983. A plan of action for the period 1985-1987 will be considered by the Assembly at its 1984 regular session.

Among other important preparatory sessions scheduled to be held in 1984 is the fifth session of the Preparatory Committee for the United Nations Conference for the Promotion of International Co-operation in the Peaceful Uses of Nuclear Energy (1986), which is planned for June, in Vienna.

In preparation for the Seventh United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders (1985), four interregional meetings of experts are to be held during 1984.

This paper describes these and other United Nations conferences and special observances scheduled for 1984, and for ensuing years.

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DISARMAMENT AND RELATED MATTERS

Second Disarmament Decade
(1980s)

In December 1979, the General Assembly declared the 1980s to be the Second Disarmament Decade, and a year later it approved a Declaration setting forth goals to be achieved and activities to be undertaken during the Decade.

In the Declaration, which was prepared at the Assembly's request by the Disarmament Commission, the Assembly noted that the First Disarmament Decade (the 1970s) had ended without the accomplishment of the objectives set for it and that, while some limited agreements had been reached, "effective measures relating to the cessation of the nuclear-arms race at an early date and to nuclear disarmament have continued to elude man's grasp".

The goals of the Second Decade, according to the Declaration, are:

-- Halting and reversing the arms race, particularly the nuclear-arms race;

-- Concluding and implementing effective disarmament agreements that will contribute significantly to the achievement of general and complete disarmament under effective international control;

-- Developing on an equitable basis the limited results obtained in the disarmament field in the 1970s;

-- Strengthening international peace and security in accordance with the United Nations Charter; and

-- Making available a substantial part of the resources released by disarmament measures to promote attainment of the objectives of the Third United Nations Development Decade.

Disarmament Week
(24-30 October)

The annual observance of Disarmament Week, which begins on the anniversary of the founding of the United Nations, was first called for in the Final Document of the General Assembly's 1978 special session on disarmament. The Assembly invited all States during this observance to carry out effective measures to expose the danger of the arms race, propagate the need for its cessation and increase public understanding of the urgent tasks of disarmament. Governmental and non-governmental organizations were invited to undertake annual activities to mark the Week. At the Assembly's request, the Secretary-General drew up in 1979 the elements of a model programme for the Week, which might assist States in developing their own observances.

Review Conference of the Parties to the Convention on the Prohibition of Military or Any Other Hostile Use of Environmental Modification Techniques
(tentatively scheduled for 10 to 21 September 1984))

The Convention on the Prohibition of Military or Any Other Hostile Use of Environmental Modification Techniques was drafted by the Conference of the Committee on Disarmament and transmitted to the General Assembly in 1976. The Assembly referred the Convention to all States for their consideration, signature and ratification, and expressed the hope for the widest possible adherence to it.

The Convention was opened for signature on 18 May 1977 and entered into force on 5 October 1978, when 20 Governments had deposited their instruments of ratification with the Secretary-General, as depositary of the Convention. Under article VIII, a conference of the State parties was to be convened five years after entry into force of the Convention, to review its operation with a view to ensuring that its purposes and provisions were being realized.

As of 5 October 1983, the Convention has been in force for five years. In a resolution adopted on 13 December 1982, the General Assembly noted that the Secretary-General intended to convene the review conference at the earliest practicable time after that date.

The Preparatory Committee for the Conference is tentatively scheduled to meet from 30 April to 4 May 1984 at Geneva; the Review Conference is tentatively scheduled for 10-21 September 1984 at Geneva.

Third Review Conference of the Parties to the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons
(August/September 1985)

On 15 December 1983, the General Assembly noted that the Final Document of the Second Review Conference of the Parties to the Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons, held at Geneva in August 1980, had proposed to the Depositary Governments (the USSR, the United Kingdom and the United States) that a third conference to review the operation of the Treaty be convened in 1985. It also noted that there was a consensus among the parties that the Third Review Conference should be held at Geneva in August/September 1985.

The Assembly also noted that an open-ended preparatory committee had been formed of parties to the Treaty serving on the Board of Governors of the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) or represented on the Committee on Disarmament, as well as parties to the Treaty which expressed interest in participating in the work of the Committee.

PEACEFUL USES OF NUCLEAR ENERGY

United Nations Conference for the Promotion of International Co-operation in the Peaceful Uses of Nuclear Energy

(1986)

The General Assembly decided in 1979 to convene a conference for the promotion of international co-operation in the peaceful uses of nuclear energy. It established a preparatory committee for the Conference and invited the IAEA "to fulfil its appropriate role within the scope of its responsibilities at all stages of preparation of the Conference, and during the Conference itself".

The General Assembly had originally decided, in December 1981, that the Conference should be held at Geneva during 1983. It expressed its conviction that the Conference, through the promotion of international co-operation in the peaceful uses of nuclear energy, should contribute greatly to meeting the increasing energy and other requirements of many countries, particularly developing ones.

The Assembly reviewed the preparations for the Conference in 1982 and 1983, and, on 14 December 1983, decided that the United Nations Conference for the Promotion of International Co-operation in the Peaceful Uses of Nuclear Energy should be held in 1986.

In addition, the Assembly requested the Chairman of the Conference's Preparatory Committee to undertake consultations with Member States which could facilitate the resolution of pending issues related to the Conference. Such issues include the Conference's provisional agenda and rules of procedure, the venue and the actual dates of the Conference. The Chairman was asked to report to the Preparatory Committee at its fifth session, to be held at Vienna for two weeks in June 1984, for the purpose of agreeing on a Conference agenda and other outstanding issues.

QUESTION OF PALESTINE

International Day of Solidarity with the Palestinian People

(29 November)

In a resolution adopted in December 1977, the General Assembly called for the annual observance, beginning in 1978, of 29 November as the International Day of Solidarity with the Palestinian People.

International Day of Innocent Children Victims of Aggression

(4 June)

On 19 August 1982, at its emergency special session on the question of Palestine, the General Assembly, "appalled at the great number of innocent Palestinian and Lebanese children victims of Israel's acts of aggression", decided to commemorate 4 June of each year as the International Day of Innocent Children Victims of Aggression.

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SOUTHERN AFRICA

Week of Solidarity with the Peoples of Namibia and All Other Colonial Territories, as well as those in South Africa, Fighting for Freedom, Independence and Human Rights

(beginning on 25 May)

In 1972 the General Assembly appealed to the Governments and the peoples of the world to observe annually, beginning on 25 May (Africa Liberation Day), a Week of Solidarity with the Colonial Peoples of Southern Africa Fighting for Freedom, Independence and Equal Rights.

In a decision adopted on 23 November 1982, the General Assembly, on the recommendation of the Special Committee against *Apartheid*, the United Nations Council for Namibia and the Special Committee on decolonization, changed the title to "Week of Solidarity with the Peoples of Namibia and All Other Colonial Territories, as well as those in South Africa, Fighting for Freedom, Independence and Human Rights".

International Day of Solidarity with the Struggling People of South Africa

(16 June)

In November 1976, the General Assembly proclaimed 16 June, the anniversary of the start of the 1976 uprising in Soweto and other areas, as the International Day of Solidarity with the Struggling People of South Africa, and called for its observance annually.

International Day of Solidarity with the Struggle of Women in South Africa

(9 August)

In December 1981, the General Assembly called for the annual observance of 9 August as the International Day of Solidarity with the Struggle of Women in South Africa, and it appealed to all Governments and organizations "to provide generous contributions to the projects of the national liberation movements and front-line States for assistance to refugee women and children from South Africa".

Namibia Day

(26 August)

The General Assembly decided in December 1973 to observe 26 August each year as Namibia Day to mark the start, in 1966, of the Namibian liberation struggle.

Day of Solidarity with South African Political Prisoners
(11 October)

Observance of 11 October as a Day of Solidarity with South African Political Prisoners was proclaimed by the General Assembly in November 1976 in a resolution demanding "the immediate and unconditional release of all persons imprisoned or restricted for their involvement in the struggle for liberation in South Africa".

Week of Solidarity with the People of Namibia and Its Liberation Movement
(Week of 27 October)

On the proposal of the President of Senegal at the International Conference on Namibia and Human Rights, held in Dakar in January 1976, the General Assembly decided in December of that year to observe annually the week of 27 October as the Week of Solidarity with the People of Namibia and Its Liberation Movement, the South West Africa People's Organization.

RACIAL DISCRIMINATION

Second Decade to Combat Racism and Racial Discrimination
(1983-1993)

In November 1973, the General Assembly designated the 10-year period beginning on 10 December 1973 (Human Rights Day) as the Decade for Action to Combat Racism and Racial Discrimination, and it adopted a Programme for the Decade setting forth the goals and objectives of the Decade and the measures to be taken at the national, regional and international levels to achieve them.

In December 1982, the General Assembly proclaimed that the objectives of the Programme for the Decade and of the programmme of activities to be undertaken during the second half of the Decade were matters of high priority. It invited Member States to continue to co-operate with the Secretary-General as part of the Programme for the Decade and the preparations for the Second World Conference to Combat Racism and Racial Discrimination, held at Geneva, 1-12 August 1983.

On 12 August 1983, the Second World Conference adopted a Declaration and a Programme of Action.

On 22 November 1983, the Assembly, after considering the report of the Second World Conference, noted with concern that, despite the efforts of the international community, the Decade for Action to Combat Racism and Racial Discrimination had not attained its principal objectives and that millions of human beings continued to be victims of racism and racial discrimination.

On the recommendation of the Second World Conference, the Assembly proclaimed the 10-year period beginning 10 December 1983 as the Second Decade to Combat Racism and Racial Discrimination, and approved the Programme of Action for the Second Decade. It requested the Economic and Social Council, with the help of the Secretary-General, to co-ordinate the implementation of the Programme and evaluate the activities undertaken during the Second Decade. The Assembly decided to consider at its 1984 regular session a plan of activities for 1985-1989, to be submitted by the Secretary-General. The Programme of Action for the Second Decade called for measures to combat racism and racial discrimination in the following areas:

-- Action to combat apartheid;

-- Education, teaching and training to create a favourable atmosphere for the eradication of racism and racial discrimination;

-- Dissemination of information and increasing the role of the mass media in combating racism and racial discrimination;

-- Measures for the promotion and protection of the human rights of minorities, indigenous peoples and migrant workers;

-- Recourse procedures for victims of racial discrimination;

-- Implementation of the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination and other related international instruments;

-- National legislation and institutions;

-- Seminars and studies;

-- Action by non-governmental organizations; and

-- International co-operation.

International Day for the Elimination of Racial Discrimination
(21 March)

International Day for the Elimination of Racial Discrimination is observed annually on 21 March, the anniversary of the killing by South African police of some 70 Africans demonstrating peacefully against the pass laws in Sharpeville, South Africa, in 1960.

Week of Solidarity with the Peoples Struggling against Racism and Racial Discrimination
(beginning on 21 March)

As part of its programme for the first Decade for Action to Combat Racism and Racial Discrimination, the General Assembly, in November 1979, called for the observance by all States, beginning on 21 March, of a Week of Solidarity with the Peoples Struggling against Racism and Racial Discrimination.

HUMAN RIGHTS

Human Rights Day
(10 December)

In 1950 the General Assembly invited all States and interested organizations to observe 10 December, the anniversary of the Assembly's adoption in 1948 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, as Human Rights Day.

DEVELOPMENT

Third United Nations Development Decade
(1981-1990)

The Third United Nations Development Decade (1981-1990) was proclaimed by the General Assembly in a resolution adopted on 5 December 1980.

During the first Development Decade (the 1960s), the Assembly had called on Member States to unite in a sustained effort to break the cycle of poverty, hunger, ignorance and disease which afflicts much of the world's population. Progress was made in a number of countries, but gains were offset by growing populations, unfavourable trade patterns and heavy debt burdens.

The need for a world plan to overcome the problems was recognized during the 1960s and, in 1970, the General Assembly approved an International Development Strategy for the Second Development Decade, the decade of the 1970s, which set forth targets for progress and expressed the commitment of Member States to carry out specific measures so that the goals could be attained. Reviewing progress in 1979, the United Nations Committee for Development Planning concluded that, while developing countries as a whole were likely to achieve the annual growth-rate targets, the lowest-income developing countries fell far short of the goals. The review indicated that, in general, developing countries remained highly vulnerable to external economic forces.

In proclaiming the Third Development Decade, the General Assembly adopted a new International Development Strategy calling for a "substantially greater effort in the 1980s" than was made during the previous Development Decade. It set a target of 0.7 per cent of the gross national product of all economically advanced countries as official development assistance to developing countries, to be achieved by 1985 if possible, but no later than in the second half of the Decade. Thereafter, the target would be raised to 1 per cent.

Targets set for the developing countries include an average annual rate of growth in gross domestic product of 7 per cent; expansion of exports of goods and services at annual rates of not less than 7.5 and 8 per cent, respectively; expansion of agricultural production and manufacturing output at average annual rates of 4 and 9 per cent, respectively; and reduction of infant mortality in the poorest countries to less than 120 per 1,000 live births.

The Strategy for the 1980s is an integral part of the efforts to establish a new international economic order, the aims of which were set out by the General Assembly on 1 May 1974, in the Declaration and Programme of Action on the Establishment of a New International Economic Order, adopted at the first of three special sessions of the Assembly on economic matters. Proclaimed at a time of growing world economic distress, the Declaration stated that the current international economic order was in direct conflict with current developments in international political and economic relations, and it stressed the severe repercussions of the crises in the world economy, especially on the developing countries.

The Declaration pointed to "the reality of interdependence of all the members of the world community" and stated that the interests of the developed countries and of the developing countries could no longer be isolated from each other.

The Programme of Action spells out measures to be taken in regard to raw materials and commodities, world trade, industrialization, financing of development, monetary matters, control of transnational corporations, sovereignty over natural resources and special aid for the least developed countries.

At the second of the special sessions on economic issues, held in September 1975, the Assembly approved a framework for concrete negotiations in trade, financing for development, food and agriculture, and other subjects, and, in December 1977, the Assembly affirmed that all global negotiations relating to the establishment of the new international economic order should take place within the framework of the United Nations system. Two years later, the Assembly expressed deep concern at the limited progress made in negotiations on international economic co-operation, and decided, therefore, to launch a round of sustained global negotiations at the third of its special sessions on economic matters, in August and September 1980. That session, however, as well as the regular Assembly sessions that followed it, did not reach agreement on the procedures and agenda for the negotiations.

In December 1982, on the proposal of its President, the Assembly decided to keep open its agenda item on the launching of global negotiations in order to allow informal consultations to continue, and to reconvene on short notice to consider any decisions or agreements that might emerge from the negotiations.

In a resolution adopted on the same date, the Assembly decided to establish a "committee of universal membership" to carry out a review and appraisal of the implementation of the International Development Strategy in 1984.

On 19 December 1983, the Assembly reaffirmed that the review and appraisal process should consist of "systematic scrutiny" of progress towards achieving the goals of the Strategy. It reaffirmed the need to identify and appraise the real causes for shortfalls encountered in the implementation of the Strategy and to carry out, if necessary, the adjustment, intensification or reformulation of the policy measures foreseen in the Strategy.

The Assembly recommended that informal consultations be conducted by the Chairman of the Committee on the Review and Appraisal of the Implementation of the International Development Strategy, and called for the Secretary-General to prepare an analytical, comprehensive, consolidated and synthesized report on the implementation of the Strategy.

Fourth General Conference of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization
(2-18 August 1984)

On 20 December 1983, the General Assembly decided that the Fourth General Conference of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO) would be held at Vienna, from 2 to 18 August 1984.

In the same resolution, the Assembly recommended that preparatory meetings take place at the regional and interregional level to provide for the fullest possible consultation among all States prior to the Conference.

Among the principal topics on the Conference's provisional agenda are "International co-operation, relevant national action, including industrial policies, and UNDIO's contribution in critical areas of industrial development, 1985-2000", and a review of the Industrial Development Decade for Africa.

The first 1984 regional preparatory meeting for the Conference was held on 19 January at United Nations Headquarters, New York. Further regional preparatory meetings are to be held 12-16 March in Bangkok, 26-28 March in Africa, at a location to be determined, 28-30 May in Havana, and in May in the Middle East, at a location to be determined. An interregional preparatory meeting is to be held 30 July to 1 August in Vienna.

The Third General Conference of UNIDO was held in New Delhi in 1980.

Transport and Communications Decade in Africa
(1978-1988)

The Transport and Communications Decade in Africa (1978-1988) was proclaimed by the General Assembly in December 1977 with a view to: giving active support to the preparation and implementation of a global strategy for the development of transport and communications in Africa, for the purpose of solving the problems of the continent in this field; and mobilizing the technical and financial resources required for this purpose.

Among the objectives of the Decade are: the construction, renovation and improvement of ports, railways and roads; giving special attention to maritime transport requirements of the 13 land-locked African countries; training of maritime personnel; establishment of national, regional and subregional shipping companies; harmonization of the administrative customs and immigration formalities of ports; and discouragement of investment in open registry vessels.

The Assembly, in its 1977 proclamation of the Decade, also called for the designation of one year during the Decade as World Communications Year, "in view of the importance of transport and communications to other regions of the world". Four years later, it proclaimed 1983 as World Communications Year: Development of Communications Infrastructures.

The plan of action for the first phase (1980-1983) of the programme of the Decade was drafted by the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) and approved in May 1979 by the Conference of African Ministers of Transport, Communications and Planning. In December 1982, the Assembly noted with satisfaction that a measure of progress had been made concerning the implementation of the first phase, and it appealed for increased support to the programme for that phase.

In a resolution adopted on 19 December 1983, the Assembly considered that the programme for the Decade might require updating during the entire period of the second phase of the Decade (1984-1988), and commended the efforts undertaken for the preparation of that phase. It requested the ECA Executive Secretary to organize consultative technical meetings not later than the middle of 1985, for the following transport and communications subsectors: broadcasting, postal services, air transport, and railways and rail transport. It asked the Secretary-General to provide $1 million from the United Nations regular budget and to seek extrabudgetary resources to enable ECA to organize these and other meetings to elaborate studies requested by the Assembly on the harmonization and co-ordination of various modes of transport and communications, and on the training and manpower needs of all African countries for all modes of transport and communications.

In addition, the Assembly requested the ECA Executive Secretary to:

-- Draw up urgently programmes on transport and communications of special importance to the land-locked developing countries of Africa;

-- Organize in January 1984 the fourth session of the Conference of African Ministers of Transport, Communications and Planning; and

-- Organize in 1984 a conference of the Governments of African countries and representatives of African airlines with a view to examining ways and means to promote inter-African air links.

Finally, the Assembly requested the ECA Executive Secretary to explore other possibilities for mobilizing financial resources for implementing the programme for the Decade.

Industrial Development Decade for Africa
(1980s)

In December 1980, the General Assembly, on the recommendation of the Third General Conference of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO), held earlier that year in New Delhi, proclaimed the 1980s as the Industrial Development Decade for Africa for the purpose of mobilizing greater political commitment to and financial and technical support -- nationally, regionally and internationally -- for the industrialization of Africa. The Assembly called on UNIDO and ECA, in close co-operation with the Organization of African Unity, to formulate proposals to implement a programme for the Decade and to monitor its progress.

In 1981 the Assembly took note of the report of UNIDO on action taken to implement the programme for the Decade and, in a resolution of 20 December 1982, appealed to all countries to contribute generously to the Industrial Development Fund for supporting activities related to the Decade.

On 20 December 1983, the Assembly noted "the deteriorating economic situation in Africa and that the number of the least developed countries in Africa has increased to 26 out of the present global total of 36".

In support of an Industrial Development Board recommendation, the Assembly reiterated appeals to the international community to increase their contributions to the industrial development of Africa within the framework of the programme for the Decade, in order to ensure that the target set by the African Governments of a 1.4 per cent share of world industrial production would be achieved by their region during the Decade.

The Assembly decided to accord high priority to the Decade among UNIDO and ECA programmes, and requested the Secretary-General to ensure that this priority was fully reflected in those organizations' budgets. It decided to increase the allocations to UNIDO, to the extent possible through overall savings from the United Nations regular budget, by $1 million in 1984 for assistance to African countries and to intergovernmental organizations for implementing the programme for the Decade.

Priority was to be accorded to the formulation of industrial policies, strategies and plans, the development of core industries, industrial manpower, technological capabilities and institutional infrastructure, the development of energy technology and equipment, the promotion of intra-African industrial co-operation, the development of the least developed countries, the mobilization of financial resources and the popularization of the Decade.

The Assembly appealed for increased contributions to UNIDO in view of the Decade; it urged the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) to consider increasing its financial allocations relevant to the Decade; and it appealed to donor countries, international financial institutions and regional development banks to increase the flow of financial resources for national, subregional and regional projects and activities of the Decade.

International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade (1981-1990)

Following recommendations by the United Nations Water Conference (Mar del Plata, Argentina, March 1977) and the United Nations Conference on Human Settlements (Vancouver, Canada, June 1976) that Governments adopt programmes to provide safe drinking water for all by 1990, the General Assembly, in November 1980, proclaimed the period 1981-1990 as the International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade.

In so doing, the Assembly expressed concern that a large part of the world's population did not have reasonable access to safe and ample water supplies and that an even larger part was without adequate sanitation facilities. The Assembly called for a commitment by Member States to bring about a substantial improvement in the standards and levels of service in drinking water supply and sanitation by 1990, and it decided to review, in 1985, progress towards the attainment of the Decade's national and international goals.

United Nations Conference on an International Code of Conduct on the Transfer of Technology

(1984)

The General Assembly decided, in December 1977, to convene, under the auspices of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), a United Nations conference to negotiate, and take all decisions necessary for the adoption of, an international code of conduct on the transfer of technology.

The Conference held four sessions between 1978 and 1981 but did not reach agreement on a draft code of conduct. In December 1981, the General Assembly decided to establish, as a special measure to accelerate the finalization of the code, an interim committee of the Conference to seek solutions to the outstanding issues and to make proposals to the Conference.

In December 1982, the Assembly called for intensifed efforts to complete the negotiations during the fifth session of the United Nations Conference on an International Code of Conduct on the Transfer of Technology, held in 1983, so that the code could be adopted by the Assembly later that year.

On 19 December 1983, the Assembly decided to convene a sixth session of the Conference in order to complete negotiations on the code not later than the first half of 1985, and invited the Secretary-General of UNCTAD to determine the precise dates of that session in consultation with regional groups.

United Nations Conference on Conditions for Registration of Ships

(1984)

In the International Development Strategy for the Third United Nations Development Decade, adopted in 1980, the General Assembly called for, among other things, an increase in the participation by the developing countries in world transport of international trade and, to that end, for appropriate structural changes to be carried out where necessary. The Assembly also called upon the international community to continue to take the necessary steps to enable developing countries to compete more effectively and to expand their merchant fleets so as to increase their share substantially with a view to reaching as close to 20 per cent as possible of the dead-weight tonnage of the world merchant fleet by 1990.

In a resolution adopted on 20 December 1982, the Assembly, recalling this decision and the recommendation of the Trade and Development Board of UNCTAD, decided to convene early in 1984 a plenipotentiary conference to consider the adoption of an international agreement concerning the conditions under which vessels should be accepted on national shipping registers.

United Nations Conference on Principles and Rules for the Control of Restrictive Business Practices
(1985)

The United Nations Conference on Restrictive Business Practices, convened by a 1978 decision of the General Assembly, held its first two sessions in 1979 and 1980. In the latter year, the Conference approved, and the Assembly adopted, a set of multilaterally agreed equitable principles and rules for the control of restrictive business practices. The Assembly decided to convene, in 1985, under the auspices of UNCTAD, a United Nations conference to review all aspects of the mutually agreed principles and rules.

POPULATION

International Conference on Population
(Mexico City, 6-13 August 1984)

The Economic and Social Council decided in November 1981 to convene an international conference on population in 1984, devoted to "discussion of selected issues of the highest priority, giving full recognition to the relationships between population, social and economic development". The Council declared that the Conference would be open to all States as full members and to the specialized agencies.

On 19 December 1983, the General Assembly endorsed the Council's decision to convene the International Conference on Population at Mexico City from 6 to 13 August 1984, and urged all States to participate at a high level. In addition, the Assembly noted the policies and programmes adopted by many States as part of their national plans to implement the World Population Plan of Action adopted at the World Population Conference (Bucharest, Romania, 1974), which stressed the fundamental relationship between population factors and overall economic and social development. The Assembly also noted the United Nations programmes and activities carried out by the United Nations Fund for Population Activities -- whose Executive Director is the Secretary-General of the Conference -- and by non-governmental organizations to implement the World Population Plan.

The Population Commission, acting as Preparatory Committee for the Conference, held a session in January 1984 at Headquarters, to prepare a draft provisional agenda for the Conference to be submitted to the Economic and Social Council for approval at the Council's first regular session of 1984.

The Assembly also requested the regional commissions to consider the Preparatory Committee's report at their 1984 sessions, to make recommendations on implementing and updating the World Population Plan of Action at the regional level, and to transmit their suggestions and recommendations to the Conference.

In the same resolution, the Assembly requested the Secretary-General to circulate the preparatory documents for the Conference, to publicize the issues to be discussed, and to continue making every effort to obtain extrabudgetary resources for the Conference.

REFUGEES

International Conference on Assistance to Refugees in Africa (ICARA II) (Geneva, 9-11 July 1984)

In a resolution adopted on 18 December 1982, the General Assembly expressed grave concern at the growing influx of refugees in Africa, which has over half of the world refugee population. The Assembly noted that while the 1981 International Conference on Assistance to Refugees in Africa had succeeded in raising world consciousness about the plight of refugees and returnees in Africa, as well as the problems of the asylum countries, the results of that Conference in terms of financial and material assistance had fallen short of the expectations of the African countries.

The Assembly requested the Secretary-General, in close co-operation with the Secretary-General of the Organization of African Unity and the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR): to convene in Geneva in 1984 a second International Conference on Assistance to Refugees in Africa to review the results of the 1981 Conference and the progress on projects submitted to it; to consider the continuing need for help in carrying out assistance, relief, rehabilitation and resettlement programmes; and to consider the impact on the economies of the African countries concerned, and provide them with assistance to strengthen their economic and social infrastructure in order to cope with the burden of dealing with large numbers of refugees and returnees.

On 16 December 1983, the Assembly approved the proposed arrangements for the Conference to be held at Geneva, 9-11 July 1984, and requested the Secretary-General to invite participation at a ministerial and high level.

The Assembly appealed for the utmost support for the Conference with a view to offering maximum financial and material assistance to refugees in Africa. It expressed its deep appreciation to the countries of asylum for alleviating the plight of the refugees, commended countries that supported programmes for refugees and returnees, and called for further co-operation with UNHCR. In the period leading up to the Conference, Member States and the principal donors, in particular, were to be kept fully informed of the priority needs of the affected countries.

WOMEN

United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace (1976-1985)

On the recommendation of the World Conference of the International Women's Year (Mexico City, 1975), which adopted a World Plan of Action, the General Assembly proclaimed 1976-1985 as the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace. The World Plan and related resolutions approved at Mexico City outlined requirements for action to end long-standing barriers to women and ensure full equality with men in all fields.

The World Plan of Action also set forth certain minimum objectives to be achieved by 1980, including: a marked increase in women's literacy; vocational training in basic skills; employment opportunities; services for rural areas; laws to guarantee equality in political participation, employment and pay; health education and services; parity in civil, social and political rights such as those relating to marriage, citizenship and commerce; and recognition of the economic value of women's traditionally unpaid work in the home and in domestic food production.

Progress in achieving those objectives was reviewed at the World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women (Copenhagen, July 1980). The Conference adopted a Programme of Action for the Second Half of the Decade which modified and strengthened the 1975 recommendations in the light of new data and research. The new Programme was also designed to ensure that women's concerns were taken into account in the formulation and implementation of the International Development Strategy for the Third United Nations Development Decade.

In December 1980, the General Assembly endorsed the Programme for Action for the Second Half of the Decade, and affirmed that implementation of the Copenhagen decisions "should result in the complete integration of women into the development process and the elimination of all forms of inequality between men and women and ... guarantee broad participation by women in efforts to strengthen peace and security throughout the world".

World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the United Nations Decade for Women (1985)

Acting on a recommendation of the 1980 World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women, the General Assembly decided in December of that year to hold in 1985 a World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the United Nations Decade for Women. The Commission on the Status of Women was to be the preparatory body for the Conference.

In a resolution adopted on 16 December 1983, the General Assembly accepted with appreciation the offer of Kenya to host the World Conference at Nairobi.

In addition, the Assembly accepted a recommendation of the Commission on the Status of Women that particular attention should be paid to the problems of women in Territories under racist colonial rule and under foreign occupation, on the basis of the documentation from the Women's Conferences held at Mexico City and Copenhagen. The Assembly also welcomed the Economic and Social Council's decision to invite the participation of non-governmental organizations in the preparation of the Conference.

YOUTH

International Youth Year: Participation, Development, Peace (1985)

In deciding in November 1978 to proclaim an International Youth Year, the General Assembly expressed its conviction of "the imperative need to harness the energies, enthusiasms and creative abilities of youth to the tasks of nation-building, the struggle for national independence and self-determination, the economic, social and cultural advancement of peoples, the implementation of the new international economic order, the preservation of world peace and the promotion of international co-operation and understanding".

The following year, the Assembly designated 1985 as International Youth Year: Participation, Development, Peace, and it established an Advisory Committee for the Year. In 1981, the Advisory Committee submitted, and the Assembly endorsed, a Specific Programme of Measures and Activities to be undertaken prior to and during the Year, at the national, regional and international levels.

In December 1982, the Assembly, in endorsing the recommendations of the Advisory Committee for the further implementation of the Specific Programme, again stressed the importance of active and direct participation of youth organizations in the activities organized at the local, national, regional and international levels for the preparation and observance of the Year.

In a resolution adopted on 22 November 1983, the Assembly stated its conviction that the existence and proper functioning of channels of communication between the United Nations and youth and youth organizations form a basic prerequisite of the active involvement of young people in, and thus of the successful preparation for, celebration of and follow-up to the International Youth Year.

The Assembly called upon Member States, specialized agencies and other intergovernmental organizations, in co-operation with youth and youth organizations, to inform young people of relevant policies and programmes and encourage them to participate in their preparation and implementation.

CRIME PREVENTION

Seventh United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders

(1985)

In 1950 the General Assembly authorized the convening every five years of a United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders. The sixth and most recent congress (Caracas, Venezuela, 1980) dealt with crime trends and crime prevention strategies, juvenile delinquency, crime and the abuse of power, and the deinstitutionalization of corrections. The Caracas Declaration approved by the Sixth Congress was subsequently endorsed by the General Assembly.

In 1985 the Seventh United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders is to discuss: new dimensions of criminality and crime prevention in the context of development; criminal justice processes and perspectives; victims of crime; youth, crime and justice; and formulation and application of United Nations standards and norms in criminal justice. The Congress is to be organized by the Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Branch of the Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs. Participants in the Congress will include criminologists, penologists and senior police officials, as well as experts in criminal law, human rights and rehabilitation.

During 1984 a series of interregional preparatory meetings will focus on specific substantive issues on the agenda.

THE HOMELESS

International Year of Shelter for the Homeless

(1987)

In 1980 the General Assembly expressed the view that an international year devoted to the problems of homeless people in urban and rural areas of the developing countries would be an appropriate occasion to focus the attention of the international community on those problems.

In a resolution adopted on 20 December 1982, the Assembly proclaimed the year 1987 as the International Year of Shelter for the Homeless, and decided that the objective of activities undertaken before and during the Year would be "to improve the shelter and neighbourhoods of some of the poor and disadvantaged by 1987, particularly in the developing countries, according to national priorities, and to demonstrate by the year 2000 ways and means of improving the shelter and neighbourhoods of the poor and disadvantaged".

On 19 December 1983, the Assembly welcomed and endorsed the overall plans for the activities before, during and after the International Year and the priorities for national and international action during 1983-1984 contained in a report of the Executive Director of the United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (Habitat) to the Commmission on Human Settlements at its 1983 session. The Assembly called upon all Governments, especially those of developing countries, to give renewed political commitment and priority to the improvement of shelter and neighbourhoods of the poor and allocate the resources necessary to meet the objectives of the International Year.

The Assembly urged all United Nations organizations and bodies and other interested institutions to make special efforts through existing and new programmes, including those aimed at involving public-opinion leaders and large groups of the population, to help achieve the objectives of the Year. It also appealed for effective financial and other support for the Year.

In the same resolution, the Assembly called for the completion of certain preparatory actions before the Commission on Human Settlements met in April 1984, in order to launch the International Year quickly and effectively.

An annex to the resolution stated that most of the action and resources of the Year would be required at the national and local levels. It called for most demonstration projects for the Year to be completed or at a stage where results could be evaluated by late 1986. Further, national action should be taken before April 1984 to: establish national focal points for the Year; assess the existing situation and future needs; begin implementation of demonstration projects; and submit to the Commission on Human Settlements a progress report giving an overview of national plans, priorities and activities and a summary of each national demonstration project for the Year.

DISABLED PERSONS

United Nations Decade of Disabled Persons
(1983-1992)

On 3 December 1982, the General Assembly, recognizing that the International Year of Disabled Persons (1981) had contributed to the acceptance by the community of the right of disabled persons to participate fully in the social life and development of their societies and enjoy living conditions equal to that of their fellow citizens, stated it was convinced that the Year had given impetus to activities related to equalization of opportunities for disabled persons as well as prevention and rehabilitation at all levels.

In the same resolution, the Assembly adopted the World Programme of Action concerning Disabled Persons, and in a companion resolution on the same day proclaimed 1983-1992 United Nations Decade of Disabled Persons "as a long-term plan of action, on the understanding that no additional resources from the United Nations system will be needed for this purpose, and encourages Member States to utilize this period as one of the means to implement the World Programme of Action concerning Disabled Persons".

OTHER SPECIAL OBSERVANCES

United Nations Day
(24 October)

The anniversary of the entry into force of the United Nations Charter -- 24 October 1945 -- has been celebrated as United Nations Day since 1948. It has traditionally been marked throughout the world by meetings, discussions and exhibits on the achievements and goals of the Organization.

International Day of Peace
(third Tuesday of September)

The General Assembly, in November 1981, declared that the third Tuesday of September, the opening day of the regular session of the General Assembly each year, "shall be officially dedicated and observed as the International Day of Peace and shall be devoted to commemorating and strengthening the ideals of peace both within and among all nations and peoples".

The first observance of International Day of Peace took place on 21 September 1982, the opening day of the thirty-seventh session of the General Assembly.

International Year of Peace
(1986)

In 1981 the General Assembly invited the Economic and Social Council to consider the possibility of declaring an international year of peace at the first practicable opportunity.

In a resolution adopted on 16 November 1982, the Assembly accepted the Council's recommendation that the year be linked to the fortieth anniversary of the United Nations and be proclaimed on 24 October 1985 (United Nations Day). In declaring 1986 to be International Year of Peace, the Assembly noted that "peace continues to be a goal instead of an achievement, in spite of the resolute efforts of the United Nations" and that there is a need "to devote a specific time to concentrate the efforts of the United Nations and its Member States to promote the ideals of peace and give evidence of their commitment to peace in all viable ways".

On 7 December 1983, the General Assembly invited "all States, all organizations within the United Nations system and interested non-governmental organizations to co-operate with the Secretary-General in achieving the objectives of the International Year of Peace", and requested the Secretary-General "to establish a voluntary fund for the programme of the International Year" and to carry out during 1984-1985 the necessary preparations for its observance, including the organization of regional seminars devoted to promote its objectives. The Assembly further requested him to report to its 1984 regular session on the draft programme and financing arrangements for the Year.

Other international days observed throughout the United Nations system include:

World Health Day (officially, 7 April, to be observed at Headquarters in 1984 on 4 April). Proclaimed by the General Assembly, World Health Day commemorates the thirty-sixth anniversary of the World Health Organization, whose constitution came into force in 1948. The theme for this year's observance is: "Children's Health: Tomorrow's Wealth".

World Environment Day (5 June). The General Assembly has urged Governments and United Nations organizations to mark the Day with activities reaffirming their concern for the preservation and enhancement of the environment. The date 5 June was chosen by the Assembly to commemorate the anniversary of the opening day of the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment (Stockholm, Sweden, 1972), which led to the establishment of the United Nations Environment Programme.

World Food Day (16 October). The aim of this observance, proclaimed in 1979 by the Conference of the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, is to heighten public awareness of the world food problem and strengthen solidarity in the struggle against hunger, malnutrition and poverty. In 1980 the General Assembly endorsed observance of the Day in consideration of the fact that "food is a requisite for human survival and well-being and a fundamental human necessity".

International Women's Day (8 March), World Maritime Day (17 March), World Meteorological Day (23 March), World Telecommunication Day (17 May), International Literacy Day (8 September), Universal Children's Day (first Monday in October), Universal Postal Union Day (9 October) and World Development Information Day (24 October).

In addition, on 6 January 1984, the Special Committeee against Apartheid called for international observance of 1984 as the Year of the Women of South Africa.

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TOPICAL ISSUES MATERIALS

HUMAN RIGHTS

50 questions and answers
about human rights and
United Nations activities
to promote them

United Nations

Department of Public Information

105A

50

Questions and Answers about Human Rights and United Nations activities to promote them

When the founding fathers of the United Nations drew up the Organization's Charter at San Francisco in 1945, they established in the first paragraph of the Preamble their fundamental objective: to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war.

In the next paragraph of the Preamble they reaffirmed faith in fundamental human rights and in the dignity and worth of the human person.

Those opening words of the United Nations Charter reflect the indissoluble link between respect for human rights and human survival.

The Charter also recognized that conditions of stability and well-being were necessary for world peace and thus established as one of the purposes of the Organization the promotion of higher standards of living, full employment and conditions of economic and social progress and of universal respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms for all, without distinction as to race, sex, language or religion.

In recognition of this interdependence of human rights, social and economic progress and world peace, the United Nations took upon itself, as one of its earliest tasks, the formulation of a Universal Declaration of Human Rights as a common standard of achievement for all peoples and for all nations, large and small. The Declaration was adopted by the General Assembly, without a dissenting vote, in 1948.

Eighteen years later, the Declaration was given a more precise legal form in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights. At that stage, an Optional Protocol to the latter Covenant was also adopted, providing that, in respect of States accepting the Protocol, individual petitions about alleged violations of human rights may be submitted to an international committee of experts—the Human Rights Committee. The Covenants and the Optional Protocol came into force in 1976.

This booklet, prepared by the United Nations Department of Public Information, answers some of the questions often asked about the United Nations stated position with regard to human rights and their place in human society. It also seeks to examine some of the principal United Nations activities which promote these rights.

1 *What are human rights?*

Human rights are fundamental to our nature; without them we cannot live as human beings.

Human rights are those requirements that allow us fully to develop and use our human qualities of intelligence and conscience and to satisfy our spiritual needs. They are based on mankind's increasing demand for a life in which the inherent dignity and the spirit of each human being will receive respect and protection—an idea that reaches beyond the comforts and conveniences that science and technology can provide.

To deny human beings their rights is to set the stage for political and social unrest—wars, hostility between nations and between groups within a nation. Far from being an abstract subject for philosophers and lawyers, human rights affect the daily lives of everyone—man, woman and child.

2 *What kind of human rights are proclaimed by the Universal Declaration?*

Broadly speaking, two kinds of rights are recognized in the Universal Declaration. There are the civil and political rights, which gradually evolved over centuries during the long development of democratic society. Then there are economic, social and cultural rights, which started to be recognized more recently when people realized that enjoyment of political and civil rights would be enhanced through the simultaneous enjoyment of certain rights of an economic, social and cultural character.

In the General Assembly's view, the two kinds of rights, although treated separately for some purposes, are indivisible and interdependent. The Assembly gives equal attention to the promotion and protection of both types of human rights, considering that the full realization of civil and political rights is impossible without the enjoyment of economic, social and cultural rights.

3 *What rights are laid down in the Universal Declaration?*

The preamble to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights states that the "recognition of the inherent dignity and of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice, and peace in the world". It recalls that Member States, in joining the United Nations, pledge to achieve, in co-operation with the Organization, the promotion of universal respect for and observance of human rights and fundamental freedoms. The General Assembly then proclaims the Declaration "as a common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations". Every individual and organ of society is to strive to promote respect for these rights and freedoms and to secure their universal recognition and observance.

Article 1 of the Declaration observes that "all human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights".

Article 2 states that everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in the Declaration, "without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status", and that "no distinction shall be made on the basis of the political, jurisdictional or international status of the country or territory to which a person belongs".

Articles 3 to 21 deal with the civil and political rights to which all human beings are entitled. These include the following rights:

- to life, liberty and security of person
- to freedom from slavery and servitude
- to freedom from torture and cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment
- to recognition as a person before the law
- to equal protection of the law
- to an effective judicial remedy for violations of human rights
- to freedom from arbitrary arrest, detention or exile
- to a fair trial and public hearing by an independent and impartial tribunal
- to be presumed innocent until proved guilty
- to freedom from arbitrary interference with privacy, family, home or correspondence
- to freedom of movement and residence
- to seek asylum
- to a nationality
- to marry and to found a family
- to own property
- to freedom of thought, conscience and religion
- to freedom of opinion and expression
- of peaceful assembly and association
- to take part in government
- of equal access to public service

Articles 22 to 28 deal with economic, social and cultural rights, including the rights:

- to social security
- to work and to form and join trade unions
- to rest and leisure
- to a standard of living adequate for health and well-being
- to education
- to participate in the cultural life of the community

Article 28 proclaims: "Everyone is entitled to a social and international order in which the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration can be fully realized."

Article 30, the final article of the Declaration, provides for an important protection against any abuse of human rights and fundamental freedoms: "Nothing in this Declaration may be interpreted as implying for any State, group or person any right to engage in any activity or to perform any act aimed at the destruction of any of the rights and freedoms set forth herein."

4 *Does the Declaration note any limitations on the exercise of human rights?*

Implicit in the Declaration is the idea that rights cannot be exercised without restriction when their exercise would interfere with the rights of others.

Article 29 proclaims that everyone has duties to the community in which alone the free and full development of his personality is possible. It defines admissible limitations on the exercise of individual rights and freedoms: "Everyone shall be subject only to such limitations as are determined by law solely for the purpose of securing due recognition and respect for the rights and freedoms of others and of meeting the just requirements of morality, public order and the general welfare in a democratic society". Rights and freedoms may in no case be exercised contrary to the purposes and principles of the United Nations.

5 *Is the Universal Declaration now law?*

The Declaration was agreed on by United Nations Member States, not as a treaty but in the form of a resolution, as a "common standard of achievement" for all peoples and all nations. However, the fact that it has been accepted by so many States gives it considerable moral weight, and several of its provisions are now seen by many as having become a part of customary international law. Its provisions have been cited as the justification for numerous United Nations actions, and have inspired or been used in international conventions—most notably the International Covenants on Human Rights—and other instruments both within and outside the Organization. They have exercised a significant influence on national constitutions and legislation and, in some cases, on court decisions. There are many instances of the use of the Declaration as a code of conduct and a yardstick to measure the degree of respect for and compliance with international standards of human rights.

Among the States which cite the Declaration in their national constitutions are Algeria, Benin, Burundi, Chad, the Congo, Gabon, Guinea, the Ivory Coast, Madagascar, Mali, Mauritania, the Niger, Rwanda, Senegal, Somalia, Togo, the United Republic of Cameroon, the Upper Volta and Zaire.

6 *What are the International Covenants on Human Rights?*

The International Covenants on Human Rights are formal legal agreements which recognize in precise terms most, but not all, of the human rights and fundamental freedoms set out in the Universal Declaration on Human Rights. They also deal with additional rights not mentioned in the Declaration. Further, they define the scope of these rights and freedoms more precisely.

7 *Are the International Covenants law?*

Yes. The provisions of the Covenants are binding on the States that ratify them. The Covenants also contain "measures of implementation"—arrangements for international review of the way in which States carry out their obligations under the Covenants.

Currently, nearly half of the United Nations Member States have become parties to each Covenant, and some 30 States have become parties to the Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights.

8 *What is the Optional Protocol?*

This is an adjunct instrument to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights which entered into force along with the Covenant. The Protocol entitles the Human Rights Committee, an organ established under the Covenant to oversee its implementation, to consider communications from individuals who claim to be victims of a violation of their human rights. Such persons must be within the jurisdiction of the State complained against, and that State must have ratified the Covenant. Also, their complaints must pertain to matters which concern States that are parties to (i.e. have ratified) the Optional Protocol.

9 *Why are the Covenants not yet ratified by all United Nations Members?*

In many countries ratification is a complex process, requiring changes in existing laws, or the approval of different national or local organs. The United Nations General Assembly continues to encourage all States to ratify the Covenants, and each year four or five States become parties.

10 *What rights does the Covenant on Civil and Political Rights specify?*

The Covenant specifies that all persons have the right to life, liberty and security of person. It states that no one may be held in slavery, punished in an inhuman or degrading way or tortured. Everyone should be equal before the law. No one may be arrested or exiled because of whim. Persons are entitled to a fair hearing if charged with a crime, and shall have the right to be presumed innocent until proved guilty. Everyone's privacy, family, home and correspondence are be protected against arbitrary interference. Persons who are persecuted have a right to seek asylum in another country. All persons have the right to a nationality. Everyone should be able to marry and found a family if they choose, and families are entitled to protection. All have the right to own property.

The Covenant also declares that human rights include: freedom of thought, conscience, religion, opinion and expression; freedom to join with others in peaceful assembly and association, for example in trade unions; and the right to take part in one's government, through elections and through equal access to employment in the public service.

Agreement is stated in article 1 of the Covenant that all peoples have the right of self-determination—by virtue of which they freely determine their political status and freely pursue their economic, social and cultural development—and may for their own ends freely dispose of their natural wealth and resources. These provisions are not contained in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

The Covenant obliges each country which is a party to it to ensure that should someone's rights be violated, he or she will be given an effective remedy within the country.

11 *What rights does the Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights specify?*

It recognizes the right to work, to free choice of jobs, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment. Every man or woman should be entitled to the same pay for the same work. Everyone has the right to rest and leisure. All have the right to an adequate standard of living—including adequate food, clothing, housing, medical and social services and social security. The family is entitled to the widest possible protection and assistance, while mothers and children are entitled to special care and assistance. Everyone has the right to education and the right freely to participate in the cultural life of the community.

Like article 1 of the Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, the first article of this Covenant states that all peoples have the right of self-determination and may dispose of their own natural wealth and resources.

12 *Are all of the rights set out in the Covenants to be given effect immediately?*

By and large, all the obligations a State assumes under the Covenant on Civil and Political Rights are meant to be implemented as soon as the State ratifies the Covenant. The Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, however, states that the full realization of the rights it recognizes is to be achieved progressively. A distinction can be seen, for instance, between the right to recognition as a person before the law, which can be put into effect immediately by enactment of legal measures, and the right to education, which requires that money be spent, teachers trained and buildings put up before everyone can enjoy such a right.

13 *Who is to enjoy these rights?*

All the rights in the Declaration and the Covenants are to be enjoyed by all persons, without distinction as to race, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status. The principle of equality and non-discrimination is basic not only to the Covenants but to all United Nations activities to promote human rights.

14 *How can the United Nations be sure that States parties live up to their promises under the Covenants?*

States parties have an obligation to report periodically to international bodies on the measures they have taken and the progress they have made. Both Covenants provide for such a reporting procedure.

In the case of the Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, the Economic and Social Council is the body which studies the periodic reports from States parties. The Council may make general recommendations and may promote appropriate international action to assist the States parties to implement the required measures.

In the case of the Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, a special Human Rights Committee composed of independent experts has been set up, as required by the Covenant, to deal with the reports. This Committee may address general comments to the States concerned, as well as to the Council.

15 *Do the Covenants see any restriction on the exercise of human rights as acceptable?*

As with the Declaration, the Covenants assume that rights may need to be restricted when unfettered exercise would interfere with the rights of others. Both Covenants state that nothing in them should be taken to imply that anyone has the right to seek to destroy or unduly limit the rights set out in those instruments. Other restrictions differ in detail depending on the right involved, but several articles of the Covenant on Civil and Political Rights provide that the rights dealt with shall not be subject to any restrictions except those provided by law and restrictions which are necessary to protect national security, public order, public health or morals, or the rights and freedom of others.

16 *What happens if two States parties to the Covenant on Civil and Political Rights disagree on whether one of them is fulfilling its obligations?*

The Covenant provides for a procedure in case of such a disagreement. For example, suppose State A thinks that State B is not allowing an ethnic or religious minority to enjoy its culture or practise its religion. If a solution cannot be reached by direct negotiation, State A may write to the Human Rights Committee, which may look into the complaint and take it up with State B to try to work out a settlement. If no agreement is worked out, the Committee may report on the facts of the case.

That procedure applies only between two States which agree in advance to allow the Human Rights Committee to deal with such questions affecting them.

17 *What United Nations bodies are principally concerned with the protection of human rights?*

The Commission on Human Rights is the main United Nations body dealing with human rights, and, as such, it provides overall policy guidance.

Set up in 1946 as one of the functional commissions of the Economic and Social Council, the 43-member body meets for six weeks each year to recommend ways to promote human rights. Its terms of reference are extensive, allowing it to deal with any matter relating to human rights. The Commission carries out studies on basic problems, such as human rights and scientific and technological developments or human rights and development. It also prepares new international treaties, for example on the rights of the child and on the prohibition of torture. It has recently undertaken assistance programmes aimed at helping countries improve respect for human rights. In addition, the Commission checks on the observance of human rights, and, in particular, can take direct action when presented with evidence of large-scale violations of human rights.

At its first session, in 1947, the Commission established a body of independent experts, the Sub-Commission on Prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Minorities, to undertake studies and make recommendations on ways to prevent discrimination, to protect minority rights and fundamental freedoms, and to perform other functions—such as examining communications alleging violations of human rights—entrusted to it by the Council or the Commission.

The Sub-Commission frequently appoints special rapporteurs to prepare studies on special topics. These have included, for example: discrimination in education, religion and the administration of justice; the adverse consequences for human rights caused by political, military, economic and other forms of assistance to colonial and racist régimes in southern Africa; the rights of individuals who are not citizens of the country in which they live; the rights of ethnic, religious and linguistic minorities; how United Nations decisions on self-determination are being implemented; the historical and current development of the right of self-determination; the new international economic order and the promotion of human rights; and the right to adequate food as a human right.

These studies may provide the basis for the preparation of draft instruments or the formulation of general principles relating to the problems they examine.

18 *Do other United Nations bodies deal with human rights?*

Almost all of them do in one way or another, since they deal with human activity. Besides the Commission on Human Rights and its Sub-Commission, the chief forums for discussion of human rights questions are the General Assembly, the Economic and Social Council, the Commission on the Status of Women and the Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination.

The General Assembly is vested by the Charter with the responsibility "to initiate studies and make recommendations" for the purpose of "promoting international co-operation in the economic, social, cultural, educational and health fields, and assisting in the realization of human rights and fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion". For the most part, human rights items on the Assembly's agenda have been referred to it by the Economic and Social Council, or the Assembly has decided at earlier sessions to take up particular matters at some specific session. Special items relating to human rights have also been proposed for inclusion in the Assembly's agenda by other principal organs of the United Nations, by Member States or by the Secretary-General.

Most human rights items on the Assembly's agenda are referred to the Third (Social, Humanitarian and Cultural) Committee for discussion. Human rights questions of an essentially political character are either considered in the Assembly's plenary meetings or referred to the Special Political Committee; those with an economic character are generally allocated to the Second; those relating to territories, to the Fourth.

Several organs and committees established by the Assembly deal with human rights situations in the specific areas they were set up to oversee. One such body is the United Nations Council for Namibia; another is the Special Committee on the Situation with regard to the Implementation of the Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples.

From time to time, the Assembly has established subsidiary organs of a temporary character, as well as special committees, to assist in activities related to human rights. Examples of such bodies are the Special Committee against *Apartheid* and the Special Committee to Investigate Israeli Practices Affecting the Human Rights of the Population of the Occupied Territories.

In accordance with provisions of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, the Human Rights Committee was set up to deal with periodic reports on the measures which States parties have adopted to give effect to the rights recognized in the Covenant, and on the progress made in the enjoyment of those rights. On the basis of these reports, the Committee prepares and submits to the General Assembly, through the Economic and Social Council, an annual report on its activities. The Committee, which is composed of 18 persons of high moral character and recognized competence in the field of human rights, may also address general comments to the States concerned as well as to the Council.

The Economic and Social Council, according to the Charter, may "make recommendations for the purpose of promoting respect for, and observance of, human rights and fundamental freedoms for all". It may prepare draft conventions for submission to the Assembly, call international conferences and set up commissions for the promotion of human rights. It may make arrangements with United Nations Member States and with the specialized agencies associated with the United Nations to obtain reports on steps taken to give effect to its recommendations on such matters. Its agenda items on human rights subjects are normally referred to its Second (Social) Committee for consideration.

Other main organs of the United Nations—the Security Council, the Trusteeship Council and the International Court of Justice—from time to time also take up matters related to the protection of human rights.

19 *What action on alleged human rights violations has the United Nations taken?*

The Commission on Human Rights and its Sub-Commission also consider in public session each year the question of violations of human rights and fundamental freedoms, including racial discrimination and *apartheid* in any part of the world. In the light of their examination of such situations, fact-finding groups or experts may be designated, on-the-spot visits may be organized, discussions with Governments pursued, assistance provided, or, in some cases, outright condemnation of violations may be decided upon.

The Commission on Human Rights and its Sub-Commission have also studied global phenomena of particularly serious violations of human rights; thus, two working groups have been established—one to study slavery and slavery-like practices such as the exploitation of child labour, and another to examine the question of enforced or involuntary disappearances.

Torture is similarly a subject of concern, and special rapporteurs have been appointed to examine the question of human rights and mass exoduses, as well as summary or arbitrary executions.

20 *What human rights conventions on specific rights has the United Nations adopted?*

Once the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was proclaimed in 1948, the United Nations immediately set out to adopt treaties on specific rights related to genocide, racial discrimination, *apartheid*, women, refugees, stateless persons and slavery. Conventions on these subjects are in effect for the States which have become parties to them.

21 *What has the United Nations done about genocide?*

In 1948, conscious of the crimes perpetrated against whole groups of innocent people during the Second World War, the General Assembly adopted the Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide, which defines genocide as the committing of acts with intent to destroy a national, ethnic, racial or religious group. The Convention declared genocide to be a crime under international law, whether committed in time of peace or war.

22 *What has the United Nations done to combat racial discrimination?*

The Organization has devoted much attention to the subject, particularly in recent years. Many newly independent countries, with vivid memories of colonialism, have been concerned about the continuation in power in southern Africa of régimes based on the dominance of a white minority over a black majority. The United Nations is trying to change the policies of those régimes, aware that discrimination and theories of racial superiority underlie many of the problems with which it deals.

The General Assembly has frequently condemned racial policies. In 1963 it unanimously adopted the Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, which affirms that discrimination on the grounds of race, colour or ethnic origin is an offence to human dignity, a denial of United Nations Charter principles, a violation of human rights and an obstacle to friendly relations among nations. It points out that racial discrimination harms both those against whom it is directed and those who practise it. While the Declaration is not legally binding on any country, it may be considered that those States which voted for it are under a moral obligation to live up to it.

As in the case of support for human rights generally, a most effective means used by the United Nations to combat racial discrimination is to expose to the world's people the evils and danger of discrimination and to suggest ways of eliminating it. That is the objective of the International Day for the Elimination of Racial Discrimination, commemorated on 21 March, the day in 1960 when more than 70 peaceful demonstrators against *apartheid* were killed and over 180 were wounded in Sharpeville, South Africa.

As part of a campaign to stamp out the evils of racism and racial discrimination, the General Assembly designated the 10-year period from 1973 to 1983 as the Decade for Action to Combat Racism and Racial Discrimination, and called on all States to work during the Decade to promote human rights and especially to eradicate racism and racial discrimination, to arrest any expansion of racist policies, to end racist régimes, and to isolate and dispel fallacious beliefs which contribute to racism and racial discrimination.

The mid-point of the Decade in 1978 was marked by a World Conference at Geneva which adopted a Programme of Action for the second half of the Decade. The Programme called for comprehensive and mandatory sanctions against the racist régimes of southern Africa, elimination by Governments of all discriminatory laws and practices, adoption of laws to punish dissemination of ideas based on racial superiority or hatred, and promotion of the rights of indigenous peoples and migrant workers.

In 1983 the Second World Conference to Combat Racism and Racial Discrimination, held in Geneva, adopted a 28-point Declaration reaffirming that racism and racial discrimination are continuing scourges which must be eradicated throughout the world. With the objectives of totally eliminating racism, racial discrimination and *apartheid*, the Conference called for a Second Decade to Combat Racism and Racial Discrimination, and adopted a Programme of Action for the Second Decade. This Programme contains specific proposals for action against *apartheid*, for education, teaching and training for the eradication of racism, for information and mass media action against racism, for the protection of minority groups subjected to racial discrimination, for recourse procedures for victims of racial discrimination, for national legislation and institutions against racial discrimination, and for seminars, studies and action by non-governmental organizations. Specific measures of international co-operation in eliminating racial discrimination were called for, as well as implementation of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination.

23 *Is there a convention against racial discrimination?*

Yes. The General Assembly in 1965 adopted the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, calling for an end to such discrimination and for the promotion of understanding among all races. It was based on the conviction "that any doctrine of superiority based on racial differentiation is scientifically false, morally condemnable, socially unjust and dangerous, and that there is no justification for racial discrimination, in theory or in practice, anywhere". The Convention entered into force in 1969.

States parties to the Convention condemn racial discrimination, defined in that instrument as "any distinction, exclusion, restriction or preference based on race, colour, descent or national or ethnic origin which has the purpose or effect of nullifying or impairing the recognition, enjoyment or exercise, on an equal footing, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural or any other fields of public life".

24 *How is the Convention against racial discrimination being implemented by the United Nations?*

A Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination was set up under the terms of the Convention to consider reports submitted by the States parties on the measures they have adopted to implement it. The Committee, composed of 18 experts, discusses the reports with representatives of the States concerned and makes suggestions. It also makes general recommendations and reports to the General Assembly. It may also try to reconcile disagreements between the parties over compliance, and may make recommendations for a solution to such disputes. In a precedent-setting provision, the Convention makes it possible for individuals or groups to bring their grievances before the Committee, provided that their Government has made a declaration under a specific provision of the Convention recognizing the competence of the Committee to receive such complaints.

25 *What is the United Nations view of apartheid?*

Apartheid (from the Afrikaans word meaning "separateness") is a systematic form of institutionalized racial discrimination and segregation, practised by the Government of South Africa as official policy since 1948. Under *apartheid*, black South Africans, the majority of the people of South Africa, are not allowed to participate in the political life of the country and are subject to hundreds of repressive laws and regulations.

Both the General Assembly and the Security Council have declared *apartheid* incompatible with the United Nations Charter. Both bodies have termed that policy a crime against humanity and called on all States to promote action to end it.

26 *What has the United Nations done about apartheid?*

In November 1977, following continued acts of violence and repression against the African people of South Africa, the Security

Council instituted a mandatory embargo on the provision of arms to South Africa by United Nations Member States. The Council decision marked the first time in the history of the United Nations that action had been taken against a Member State under Chapter VII of the Charter, which provides for enforcement action against Member States in situations deemed to present threats to the peace, breaches of the peace and acts of aggression.

Several United Nations bodies deal with the problem of *apartheid*. The Special Committee against *Apartheid* keeps a constant watch on the situation and reports to the Assembly and the Security Council. The Group of Experts on southern Africa of the Commission on Human Rights investigates charges of ill-treatment of political prisoners and other detainees in southern Africa.

In addition, the Assembly has created three voluntary funds—the United Nations Trust Fund for South Africa, the United Nations Educational and Training Programme for Southern Africa and the Trust Fund for Publicity against *Apartheid*—through which contributions can be made to the anti-*apartheid* struggle. Another fund is administered by the United Nations Council for Namibia (the legal Administering Authority of the territory once known as South West Africa, when it was administered by South Africa under a mandate given to it by the League of Nations). South Africa has refused to relinquish control of Namibia in defiance of the international community, and the *apartheid* system currently prevails in the illegally occupied territory.

To focus the attention of Governments and the world's people on the practice of *apartheid*, the United Nations has sponsored or co-sponsored a number of world conferences and seminars on ways to eliminate *apartheid*. The period from March 1978 to March 1979 was proclaimed by the Assembly as International Anti-*Apartheid* Year. The Special Committee against *Apartheid* helped sponsor a World Conference for Action against *Apartheid* at Lagos, Nigeria, in 1977. The Declaration adopted by the Conference and later endorsed by the General Assembly reaffirmed the commitment of Governments and peoples of the world to take action to eradicate *apartheid*.

The International Conference on Sanctions against South Africa, held in Paris in 1981, called for further international action to isolate South Africa, including the imposition, under Chapter VII of the Charter, of sanctions as the most appropriate and effective means to ensure South Africa's compliance with United Nations decisions.

The Assembly proclaimed 1982 the International Year of Mobilization for Sanctions against South Africa, to mobilize world public opinion and encourage action by States in support of comprehensive and mandatory sanctions against that country.

In 1981 the Assembly decided to observe annually on 9 August—the anniversary of a 1956 march of women to the offices of the South African Government in Pretoria, in protest over the extension to African women of the "pass laws" of the *apartheid* system—the International Day of Solidarity with the Struggle of Women in South Africa and Namibia.

In addition to the International Day commemorating the Sharpeville massacre, a number of other special days are observed, including the International Day of Solidarity with the Struggling People of South Africa (16 June—the anniversary of the beginning of the 1976 uprising in Soweto and other areas), and a Day of Solidarity with South African Political Prisoners (11 October).

27 *Is there a convention outlawing the practice of apartheid?*

Yes, the crime of *apartheid* was written into international law with the adoption by the General Assembly in 1973 of the International Convention on the Suppression and Punishment of the Crime of *Apartheid*.

The Convention provides that international responsibility for the crime of *apartheid* shall apply to individuals, members of organizations and institutions and State representatives, whether residing in the country where the acts are perpetrated or elsewhere. Persons charged can be tried by any State Party to the Convention.

The Convention, which entered into force in 1976, contains certain measures for its implementation: States parties are required to report periodically to a special three-member group of the Commission on Human Rights on the steps they are taking to implement the Convention.

28 *Has the United Nations taken any action against apartheid in non-political areas?*

In an effort to eliminate *apartheid* from sports, the Assembly has appealed to individuals, sports organizations and promoters to refuse to hold contests with persons or teams from a country which has an official policy of racial discrimination in sports. Following the Assembly's adoption in 1977 of an International Declaration against *Apartheid* in Sports, efforts are under way currently in the United Nations to draw up a legally binding treaty on this question.

29 *Is the United Nations concerned about other types of discrimination?*

The Sub-Commission on Prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Minorities, since 1947, has been studying discriminatory practices based on other grounds, including religion and political opinion, as well as race and colour. The Sub-Commission prepared the first drafts of both the Declaration and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination and the Declaration on the Elimination of All Forms of Intolerance and Discrimination Based on Religion or Belief.

Specialized agencies related to the United Nations have also acted against discrimination in their fields of concern. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) has adopted a Convention against Discrimination in Education, which came into force in 1960. That year, the International Labour Organisation (ILO) approved a Convention concerning Discrimination in Respect of Employment and Occupation. Both Conventions call for periodic reports by Governments on what they are doing to carry out the provisions of those instruments, and contain measures for settling disputes.

30 *What about discrimination against women?*

The first United Nations legal instrument dealing exclusively with women's rights was the Convention on the Political Rights of Women, adopted by the General Assembly in 1952. The Convention states that women shall be entitled to vote in all elections on equal terms with men and shall be eligible to hold public office and to exercise all public functions established by national law on equal terms with men.

Under the 1957 Convention on the Nationality of Married Women, each contracting State agrees that neither the celebration nor the dissolution of marriage between one of its nationals and an alien, nor the change of nationality of the husband during the marriage, shall automatically affect the nationality of the wife.

The Declaration on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, adopted by the Assembly in 1967, united in a single instrument principles and standards relating to the rights of women in all spheres of family life and of society. Those principles and standards were included in the legally binding Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, which was adopted by the Assembly in 1979 and entered into force in 1981.

The purpose of the Convention is to end the discrimination that denies or limits women's equality in political, economic, social, cultural and civic fields. States parties are to submit periodic reports on the measures they adopt to give effect to the Convention's provisions. The reports are examined by the 23-member Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, which was elected at the first meeting of the States parties in 1982. It reports annually to the General Assembly.

31 *How else does the United Nations promote women's rights?*

The Commission on the Status of Women, which drafted the conventions dealing with women's rights, meets every other year to examine women's advances towards equality throughout the world. Working closely with various specialized agencies, especially the ILO and UNESCO, in matters affecting economic rights and the right to education, and maintaining close working relations with regional intergovernmental bodies and with non-governmental organizations, the Commission has drawn up a number of recommendations to improve the position of women in law and in practice.

Current United Nations programmes for women emphasize equality of opportunity of men and women as well as equality of rights, focusing on how international standards are implemented. Special emphasis is placed on the role of women in the family, their full integration in the economic, social and political development of their countries, and the interrelationship of the status of women and population problems.

By proclamation of the General Assembly, 1975 was observed as International Women's Year. A feature of the Year was a United Nations-sponsored World Conference in Mexico City. The Conference adopted a Declaration containing principles on the equality of men and women, and their contribution to development and peace, as well as a World Plan of Action setting out guidelines and targets for improving the status of women. On the recommendation of the Conference, the General Assembly proclaimed the United Nations Decade for Women (1976-1985), calling for sustained action to implement the World Plan and other Conference decisions.

In 1976 the Assembly approved the creation of an International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women, whose headquarters was inaugurated in 1983 at Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic.

The World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women, held in Copenhagen in 1980, adopted a Programme of Action for the second half of the Decade, 1980-1985, to promote the three objectives of its theme: "Equality, Development and Peace", with special emphasis on the subtheme—"Employment, Health and Education". It delineated specific action to ensure that the objectives of the World Plan were met by the end of the Decade, when a World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the United Nations Decade for Women would be convened.

In 1982 the General Assembly adopted a Declaration on the Participation of Women in Promoting International Peace and Co-operation, which states that special national and international measures are necessary to increase the level of women's participation in international relations so that women can contribute, *on an equal basis with men, to national and international efforts* to secure world peace and economic and social progress and to promote international co-operation. These measures would include: an exchange of experience at the national and international levels; greater publicity for the role of women; encouragement of women to participate in inter- and non-governmental organizations and their equitable representation in governmental and non-governmental functions; equal opportunity for women to enter diplomatic service; appointment of women to delegations to national and international meetings; increased employment of women at all levels in the secretariats of the United Nations system of organizations; and adequate legal protection of the rights of women.

32 *What has the United Nations done to help refugees?*

Some of the most practical work done by the United Nations in human rights is in this field. Two programmes in particular have the responsibility for providing material assistance to refugees: the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East (UNRWA) and the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). Several million victims of war, persecution and internal upheavals have been the concern of these bodies.

In mid-1983 there were nearly 2 million refugees registered with UNRWA, which provides education, health and relief services to Palestine refugees in Jordan, Lebanon, the Syrian Arab Republic and the occupied territories of the West Bank and the Gaza strip. The Agency also provides emergency relief assistance to a large number of refugees who have suffered as a result of the fighting in Lebanon since mid-1982.

The UNHCR, which provides international protection as well as humanitarian aid, has helped more than 25 million uprooted persons by protecting and promoting observance of their rights, helping them to become self-supporting and seeking permanent solutions to their problems. By 1966, the last refugee camps in Europe—some of which dated back to the end of the Second World War—were closed. Today, in Africa, Asia and Latin America, UNHCR is helping to repatriate or resettle many millions of refugees and displaced persons.

33 *Is there a convention to protect refugees?*

Yes. In 1951 the General Assembly adopted a Convention relating to the Status of Refugees, which prohibits expulsion of refugees, especially to a territory where their life or freedom would be threatened. It also specifies the kind of treatment that refugees should receive in the countries harbouring them, with regard to religion, access to courts, education, relief, labour legislation, housing and freedom of movement. A 1967 Protocol extends the Convention to apply to the situation of "new refugees", i.e.

persons who became refugees as a result of events which took place after 1 January 1951.

34 *What is the United Nations doing about the problem of stateless persons?*

A Convention relating to the Status of Stateless Persons was adopted in 1954 and came into force in 1969, setting out standards of treatment for persons who do not have a nationality. In an effort to deal with the problem of reducing future statelessness, the United Nations in 1961 adopted a Convention to help people acquire a nationality at birth and to limit the circumstances in which they might lose a nationality without acquiring another. This treaty, the Convention on the Reduction of Statelessness, came into force in 1975, but as of mid-1983 only 10 States had ratified or acceded to it. The complexity and variety of nationality laws make this a most difficult question, but United Nations efforts are continuing in order to increase the number of contracting States.

35 *What is the United Nations doing about the right of freedom of information?*

Freedom of information—including freedom of opinion, expression and the press—is dealt with in general terms in the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, including "freedom to seek, receive and impart information and ideas of all kinds, regardless of frontiers, either orally, in writing or in print, in the form of art, or through any other media".

Efforts to embody in a written text a more precise definition of this freedom, however, have not been successful, since different countries have different ideas about it, particularly as it applies to the role of the press in society.

On one aspect of this topic, the Assembly has adopted a Convention on the International Right of Correction, designed to enable States to have publicized in another country corrections to news dispatches published in that country which they consider false or distorted. This Convention came into force in 1962.

In addition, since 1978 the Assembly has repeatedly affirmed the need to establish a new, more just and more effective world information and communication order, based on the free circulation and wider and better-balanced dissemination of information. The Assembly's action followed UNESCO's adoption of a Declaration on Fundamental Principles concerning the Mass Media to Strengthening Peace and International Understanding, to the Promotion of Human Rights and to Countering Racialism, *Apartheid*, and Incitement to War.

36 *What is the United Nations doing about the rights of the worker?*

Almost all the work of the International Labour Organisation, a specialized agency of the United Nations, is concerned with safeguarding the human rights of the worker. Up to 1983, the ILO had adopted 158 Conventions and 166 Recommendations, making up an International Labour Code which deals with a wide range of rights—from hours of work and minimum wages to maternity protection, from industrial accidents to employment policy. Among its Conventions is one on the abolition of forced labour, and another which seeks to protect freedom of association and the right of workers to organize trade unions. The ILO advises Governments, at their request, on ways to ensure that labour standards are adhered to by employers and employees, and it trains workers and management in a wide range of subjects, from the organization of co-operatives to the operation of social security schemes. It has special machinery for considering violations of trade union rights.

37 *Does slavery still exist, and is the United Nations doing anything about it?*

Yes, slavery is still to be found in the world, together with similar institutions and practices, traffic in persons, and exploitation of the prostitution of others. These matters are actively before the United Nations.

The Organization's main legal instruments in this regard are: the International Slavery Convention, approved by the League of Nations in 1926; a Supplementary Convention on the Abolition of Slavery, the Slave Trade and Institutions and Practices Similar to Slavery, adopted in 1956 by a United Nations Conference; and the 1949 Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Persons and the Exploitation of the Prostitution of Others. Parties to the Slavery Convention pledge themselves to prevent and suppress the slave trade and bring about the complete abolition of all forms of slavery. The Supplementary Convention outlaws certain institutions and practices similar to slavery such as debt bondage, serfdom, purchase of brides, slavery-like practices concerning women, and exploitation of child labour. Parties to the Convention against the traffic in persons agree to punish those engaged in such traffic and those who exploit the prostitution of others.

Permanent machinery to give advice on the elimination of slavery and related practices was set up in 1974 in the form of a Working Group on Slavery, which reports to the Sub-Commission on Prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Minorities. The Group has been authorized to review developments in the field of slavery and the slave trade, in all their practices and manifestations, and to examine any information on the subject from credible sources, with a view to recommending remedial action. The Group has called for measures to eradicate slavery, including land reform and reform of educational systems to ensure dissemination of technical knowledge, especially in agriculture. It has also recommended a full examination of situations that lead to forms of economic slavery, such as debt bondage, and of other practices leading to slavery.

A new report on slavery was published in 1982, describing new forms of slavery-like exploitation.

38 *What consideration is the United Nations giving to the rights of children?*

The rights and well-being of the world's children are the prime concern of one of the best-known of its agencies, the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), which works for the right of disadvantaged children in developing countries to have access to proper health care and nutrition, functional education, clean drinking water and sanitation, and other basic services. UNICEF provides equipment and supplies for schools, health centres, rural water systems and other community-oriented services, and help for training the local personnel needed to make such services work. Since the mid-1970s, UNICEF has focused increasingly on supporting such efforts at the community level, based on participation of the people of villages or urban settlements.

The framework for UNICEF's efforts is provided by the Declaration of the Rights of the Child, unanimously adopted by the General Assembly in 1959. The Declaration restated several provisions of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights as applicable to children, adding that the child "needs special safeguards and care, including appropriate legal protection, before as well as after birth".

The basic premise of the Declaration is that mankind owes the child the best it has to give. Parents, individuals, voluntary organizations, local authorities and Governments are called on to recognize the rights and freedoms set forth and to strive for their observance. One of the principles of the Declaration states that children shall enjoy special protection and be given opportunities and facilities to enable them to develop in a normal and healthy manner and in conditions of freedom and dignity.

The General Assembly proclaimed 1979 (the twentieth anniversary year of the proclamation of the Declaration) as the International Year of the Child, in order to encourage all countries to review their programmes for the promotion of the well-being of children.

A legally binding convention on the rights of the child is currently being prepared by the Commission on Human Rights.

39 *Is the United Nations also protecting the human rights of young people?*

Yes, it is active in this area, too. The General Assembly in 1965 adopted by acclamation the Declaration on the Promotion among Youth of the Ideals of Peace, Mutual Respect and Understanding between Peoples. The Declaration sets out principles to guide not only young people but also adults who are concerned with the education and welfare of youth. According to the Declaration, the education of the young should develop all their faculties. It should train them to acquire higher moral qualities and to be deeply attached to the ideals of peace, liberty and the dignity and equality of all men. It should imbue young people with respect and love for humanity and for humanity's creative achievements. In addition, it emphasizes the important role of the family in achieving those aims.

Other recommendations made to Member States by the Assembly relate to preparing youth through education for full participation in all aspects of life and development, to health policies and programmes which would ensure that they are able to take advantage of opportunities open to them, and to the adoption of measures to increase employment for youth. The General Assembly has proclaimed 1985 as International Youth Year, with the theme "Participation, Development and Peace". Its aim is to bring about widespread awareness of the situation of youth, their problems and aspirations, with a view to engaging young people in the development process.

40 *What has the United Nations to say about the right to education?*

In a world where almost half of all children grow up without any education because schools are lacking, and where four out of ten adults cannot read or write, a massive effort is needed to give substance to the right to education. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, a United Nations specialized agency, has organized its planning in the context of respect for this right. Its efforts include assistance to States to develop national literacy programmes and help in conducting mass literacy pilot-programmes, funded with the aid of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). UNESCO's assistance includes educational programmes, training for teachers, assistance in building inexpensive schools, modernization of curricula and production of quality textbooks. UNICEF also assists national educational programmes with supplies and equipment.

41 *If individuals believe their rights protected by United Nations treaties have been violated, can they lodge a complaint with the United Nations?*

Two United Nations treaties provide that possibility: the Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination.

An individual can lodge a complaint under the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, but only if the Government complained against has ratified both the Covenant and its Optional Protocol. This is the procedure: If John Smith, who believes his right to freedom of expression has been violated by his own Government, has tried without success to obtain satisfaction within his country, and if his country is a party to both the Covenant and the Protocol, he may complain to the Human Rights Committee. The Committee may then take up the complaint and forward its views to the individual and to his Government. The Committee will also report annually to the General Assembly on such activities under the Protocol.

An individual, or group of individuals, can also lodge a complaint with the Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination that his, or their, rights under the Convention have been violated, but only if the State against which the complaint is made is a party to the Convention and has accepted the optional complaint procedure.

42 *Can individuals or groups complain to the United Nations even when their case is not covered by the two treaties just mentioned?*

Anyone in the world, or any group of persons, who feels they have been prevented from exercising a human right or fundamental freedom may complain to the United Nations. This is in addition to the right of individual complaint under the Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and under the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, mentioned above. In fact, tens of thousands of letters complaining of human rights violations are received each year and dealt with under a procedure known as the "1503" procedure, after the number of the Economic and Social Council resolution establishing it.

Communications containing complaints of violations of human rights are summarized in confidential documents sent to the Members of the Commission on Human Rights and its Sub-Commission on Prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Minorities; copies of the complaints are also sent to the Member States named. Any replies from the Government are forwarded to the Commission and Sub-Commission. If the Sub-Commission finds that the communications appear to reveal "a consistent pattern of gross and reliably attested violations of human rights", it may refer the situation to the Commission which, in turn, may decide to carry out a thorough study of the situation or to name an *ad hoc* committee to investigate it. All these procedures are confidential and are dealt with in private meetings until a report, if any, is made by the Commission to the Economic and Social Council.

43 *What has the United Nations done about "disappeared" persons?*

In 1978 the General Assembly expressed its deep concern at reports of disappearances of persons in various parts of the world, reportedly as a result of excesses on the part of law enforcement or security authorities, and it asked the Commission on Human Rights to consider the question and make recommendations. In 1980 the Commission set up a five-member working group on disappearances which reports annually to the Commission. The group examines information concerning alleged disappearances, tries to protect persons in danger and, in general, works to help eradicate this practice.

44 *What is the United Nations doing about the rights of persons detained or imprisoned?*

The United Nations has proclaimed Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners and detainees. Currently, the General Assembly is preparing a set of additional principles further to promote respect for the human rights of such persons.

In addition, every year, information submitted by Governments, international organizations and non-governmental organizations on the legal and factual situations of such persons is examined by the Sub-Commission on Prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Minorities. On the basis of this examination, the Sub-Commission makes practical recommendations designed to ensure the rights of detained or imprisoned persons.

45 *What is the United Nations doing about torture?*

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights laid down in its article 5 that "No one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment." This essential element of human dignity was later given the force provided by an international treaty when it was included in article 7 of the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights. Over the past decade, the United Nations has intensified its efforts to eliminate torture through its standard-setting and fact-finding activities. In 1975 the General Assembly adopted the Declaration on the Protection of All Persons from Being Subjected to Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment. More recently, in 1982, the Assembly adopted the Principles of Medical Ethics, pertaining to the role of health personnel, particularly physicians, in protecting prisoners and detainees against torture and other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment. The Commission on Human Rights hopes soon to complete its work on drafting a convention against torture.

Unfortunately, these standard-setting activities have not yet eliminated torture. This is the unhappy story told by reports on specific situations presented to the General Assembly and the Commission on Human Rights, and by the annual review of the rights of detainees carried out by the Sub-Commission on Prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Minorities.

The General Assembly, while continuing its efforts to eliminate torture, decided in 1981 to establish a United Nations Voluntary Fund for Victims of Torture as a mechanism through which humanitarian aid and assistance can be channelled to torture victims and their families. Contributions to this fund may be made by Governments, organizations, foundations and individuals.

46 *What about arbitrary executions?*

The General Assembly has repeatedly condemned the practice of summary and arbitrary executions widely regarded as being politically motivated.

Upon the request of the Commission on Human Rights, the Economic and Social Council in 1982 authorized the appointment of a special rapporteur to make a comprehensive study of the practice. The rapporteur's first report was submitted in 1983; a second was to be published in 1984.

47 *Is the United Nations doing anything to discourage Nazi ideologies?*

The General Assembly is very concerned about Nazi, Fascist and neo-Fascist activities and all other forms of totalitarian ideologies and practices based on racial intolerance, hatred and terror. Having noted a certain intensification of such activities recently, it has asked States to take adequate measures against groups or organizations practising them.

48 *How does the United Nations help Governments promote respect for human rights?*

The United Nations provides assistance in this area upon request. It supplies advisory services of experts, offers fellowships and organizes seminars. In addition, several regional training courses have been held to familiarize criminal-justice officials with international human rights standards in criminal-justice matters, and legislation and practices of other countries.

Recently the Commission on Human Rights, at the request of the Governments concerned, has given particular attention to helping countries overcome the effects of inherited difficult human rights situations. In one case, experts were provided to help draft a new constitution, and in another case, a wide-ranging human rights education programme is being considered.

The United Nations also encourages Governments to improve national and local machinery for the protection of human rights. Encouragement is also given for the establishment of regional machinery for protecting human rights where such machinery does not now exist.

49 *In what way can United Nations activities in behalf of human rights be expected to develop?*

The coming into force of the International Covenants on Human Rights as well as the Conventions against racial discrimination and *apartheid* have brought into being a new era in the protection of human rights, enabling the United Nations to focus its efforts on compliance with the international standards laid down in those treaties.

In coming years, the Organization will continue to encourage wider adherence to these and other human rights instruments and to oversee and strengthen their implementation. It can be expected to continue applying and striving to perfect techniques of investigation and fact-finding in situations where there may be a threat to the safeguarding of human rights.

With universal adherence to the various human rights instruments a stated goal of the United Nations, the Organization expects that there will be a substantial increase in the number of States parties to these accords. As a result, more comprehensive use of the reporting systems, combined with vigilance by reviewing bodies, should help bring about positive changes in national legislation and administrative and judicial practices. And the anticipated increased use of procedures for dealing with communications alleging violations of rights should influence Governments to improve certain situations, to put an end to situations identified as revealing large-scale violations and to remedy individual cases.

Meanwhile, the task of elaborating new standards, through the adoption of declarations, recommendations and legally binding treaties, is continuing. Work is also in progress on drawing up additional international standards to protect individuals from torture and to protect the rights of the child, the rights of minorities, the rights of indigenous populations, the rights of migrant workers, and the rights of non-citizens.

Another area being looked into is that of human rights as they are affected by scientific and technological developments.

50 *What can individuals do to help the United Nations promote human rights?*

Individuals have been specifically called on to play a part in the Organization's promotion of human rights since 1948, when the United Nations approved the Universal Declaration of Human Rights "as a common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations, to the end that every individual and every organ of society, keeping this Declaration constantly in mind, shall strive by teaching and education to promote respect for these rights and freedoms and by progressive measures, national and international, to secure their universal and effective recognition and observance, both among the peoples of Member States themselves and among the peoples of territories under their jurisdiction".

Some 35 years later, many citizens continue to take these words to heart as they strive for human rights as individuals in their local communities, or work in concert with others in non-governmental organizations, where their efforts can often have most effect. To inform themselves, and then to inform others, individuals can find available a wide variety of literature on human rights questions published by the United Nations and other sources. They can arrange through the United Nations for speakers to address local clubs and other groups of which they are members.

Citizens can also encourage schools to teach about human rights or stimulate newspapers and magazines to write on the subject. They may write their legislators or other leaders to

encourage their Governments to ratify international human rights conventions.

To aid United Nations efforts in this area more directly, they can contribute to United Nations programmes aimed at advancing human rights, including UNICEF, UNRWA, UNHCR, the United Nations Trust Fund for South Africa, the United Nations Fund for Namibia, the United Nations Educational and Training Programme for Southern Africa, or the United Nations Voluntary Fund for Victims of Torture.

In the broadest sense, the problem of protecting and promoting human rights is the main concern of the United Nations. Since rights are not enjoyed if one cannot earn a living or feed one's family, all of the economic and social development programmes of the international community are essentially programmes to advance human rights. Since a person cannot be free if the nation to which he or she belongs is not allowed to decide its own destiny, efforts to promote the independence of colonial countries and peoples are basically human rights efforts.

The world consists of diverse cultures, political ideologies and racial origins, various religious beliefs and different degrees of economic development. When, out of that diversity, men and women develop common standards of human rights and respect for human dignity everywhere, they create a profound bond between peoples which is essential for maintaining peaceful relations among nations and for fruitful economic, social and cultural co-operation.

Thus, as an individual or a member of a group, you are the prime concern of the United Nations activities in human rights, and if is you who must play a key role in the success of this work.

UNIVERSAL DECLARATION of HUMAN RIGHTS

On December 10, 1948, the General Assembly of the United Nations adopted and proclaimed the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the full text of which appears in the following pages. Following this historic act the Assembly called upon all Member countries to publicize the text of the Declaration and "to cause it to be disseminated, displayed, read and expounded principally in schools and other educational institutions, without distinction based on the political status of countries or territories."

Final Authorized Text

UNITED NATIONS

OFFICE OF PUBLIC INFORMATION

UNIVERSAL DECLARATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS

PREAMBLE

Whereas recognition of the inherent dignity and of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world,

Whereas disregard and contempt for human rights have resulted in barbarous acts which have outraged the conscience of mankind, and the advent of a world in which human beings shall enjoy freedom of speech and belief and freedom from fear and want has been proclaimed as the highest aspiration of the common people,

Whereas it is essential, if man is not to be compelled to have recourse, as a last resort, to rebellion against tyranny and oppression, that human rights should be protected by the rule of law,

Whereas it is essential to promote the development of friendly relations between nations,

Whereas the peoples of the United Nations have in the Charter reaffirmed their faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person and in the equal rights of men and women and have determined to promote social progress and better standards of life in larger freedom,

Whereas Member States have pledged themselves to achieve, in co-operation with the United Nations, the promotion of universal respect for and observance of human rights and fundamental freedoms,

Whereas a common understanding of these rights and freedoms is of the greatest importance for the full realization of this pledge,

Now, Therefore,

THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY

proclaims

THIS UNIVERSAL DECLARATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS as a common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations, to the end that every individual and every organ of society, keeping this Declaration constantly in mind, shall strive by teaching and education to promote respect for these rights and freedoms and by progressive measures, national and international, to secure their universal and effective recognition and observance, both among the peoples of Member States themselves and among the peoples of territories under their jurisdiction.

Article 1. All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood.

Article 2. Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status.

Furthermore, no distinction shall be made on the basis of the political, jurisdictional or international status of the country or territory to which a person belongs, whether it be independent, trust, non-self-governing or under any other limitation of sovereignty.

Article 3. Everyone has the right to life, liberty and security of person.

Article 4. No one shall be held in slavery or servitude; slavery and the slave trade shall be prohibited in all their forms.

Article 5. No one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.

Article 6. Everyone has the right to recognition everywhere as a person before the law.

Article 7. All are equal before the law and are entitled without any discrimination to equal protection of the law. All are entitled to equal protection against any discrimination in violation of this Declaration and against any incitement to such discrimination.

Article 8. Everyone has the right to an effective remedy by the competent national tribunals for acts violating the fundamental rights granted him by the constitution or by law.

Article 9. No one shall be subjected to arbitrary arrest, detention or exile.

Article 10. Everyone is entitled in full equality to a fair and public hearing by an independent and impartial tribunal, in the determination of his rights and obligations and of any criminal charge against him.

Article 11. (1) Everyone charged with a penal offence has the right to be presumed innocent until proved guilty according to law in a public trial at which he has had all the guarantees necessary for his defence.

(2) No one shall be held guilty of any penal offence on account of any act or omission which did not constitute a penal offence, under national or international law, at the time when it was committed. Nor shall a heavier penalty be imposed than the one that was applicable at the time the penal offence was committed.

Article 12. No one shall be subjected to arbitrary interference with his privacy, family, home or correspondence, nor to attacks upon his honour and reputation. Everyone has the right to the protection of the law against such interference or attacks.

Article 13. (1) Everyone has the right to freedom of movement and residence within the borders of each state.

(2) Everyone has the right to leave any country, including his own, and to return to his country.

Article 14. (1) Everyone has the right to seek and to enjoy in other countries asylum from persecution.

(2) This right may not be invoked in the case of prosecutions genuinely arising from non-political crimes or from acts contrary to the purposes and principles of the United Nations.

Article 15. (1) Everyone has the right to a nationality.

(2) No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his nationality nor denied the right to change his nationality.

Article 16. (1) Men and women of full age, without any limitation due to race, nationality or religion, have the right to marry and to found a family. They are entitled to equal rights as to marriage, during marriage and at its dissolution.

(2) Marriage shall be entered into only with the free and full consent of the intending spouses.

(3) The family is the natural and fundamental group unit of society and is entitled to protection by society and the State.

Article 17. (1) Everyone has the right to own property alone as well as in association with others.

(2) No one shall be arbitrarily deprived of his property.

Article 18. Everyone has the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion; this right includes freedom to change his religion or belief, and freedom, either alone or in community with others and in public or private, to manifest his religion or belief in teaching, practice, worship and observance.

Article 19. Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression; this right includes freedom to hold opinions without interference and to seek, receive and impart information and ideas through any media and regardless of frontiers.

Article 20. (1) Everyone has the right to freedom of peaceful assembly and association.

(2) No one may be compelled to belong to an association.

Article 21. (1) Everyone has the right to take part in the government of his country, directly or through freely chosen representatives.

(2) Everyone has the right of equal access to public service in his country.

(3) The will of the people shall be the basis of the authority of government; this will shall be expressed in periodic and genuine elections which shall be by universal and equal suffrage and shall be held by secret vote or by equivalent free voting procedures.

Article 22. Everyone, as a member of society, has the right to social security and is entitled to realization, through national effort and international co-operation and in accordance with the organization and resources of each State, of the economic, social and cultural rights indispensable for his dignity and the free development of his personality.

Article 23. (1) Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment.

(2) Everyone, without any discrimination, has the right to equal pay for equal work.

(3) Everyone who works has the right to just and favourable remuneration ensuring for himself and his family an existence worthy of human dignity, and supplemented, if necessary, by other means of social protection.

(4) Everyone has the right to form and to join trade unions for the protection of his interests.

Article 24. Everyone has the right to rest and leisure, including reasonable limitation of working hours and periodic holidays with pay.

Article 25. (1) Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and of his family, including food, clothing, housing and medical care and necessary social services, and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond his control.

(2) Motherhood and childhood are entitled to special care and assistance. All children, whether born in or out of wedlock, shall enjoy the same social protection.

Article 26. (1) Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.

(2) Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all

nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace.

(3) Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children.

Article 27. (1) Everyone has the right freely to participate in the cultural life of the community, to enjoy the arts and to share in scientific advancement and its benefits.

(2) Everyone has the right to the protection of the moral and material interests resulting from any scientific, literary or artistic production of which he is the author.

Article 28. Everyone is entitled to a social and international order in which the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration can be fully realized.

Article 29. (1) Everyone has duties to the community in which alone the free and full development of his personality is possible.

(2) In the exercise of his rights and freedoms, everyone shall be subject only to such limitations as are determined by law solely for the purpose of securing due recognition and respect for the rights and freedoms of others and of meeting the just requirements of morality, public order and the general welfare in a democratic society.

(3) These rights and freedoms may in no case be exercised contrary to the purposes and principles of the United Nations.

Article 30. Nothing in this Declaration may be interpreted as implying for any State, group or person any right to engage in any activity or to perform any act aimed at the destruction of any of the rights and freedoms set forth herein.

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UNITED NATIONS

MANAGEMENT · FINANCE · PEOPLE

UNITED NATIONS IMAGE & REALITY

questions and answers about

Management, Finance and People

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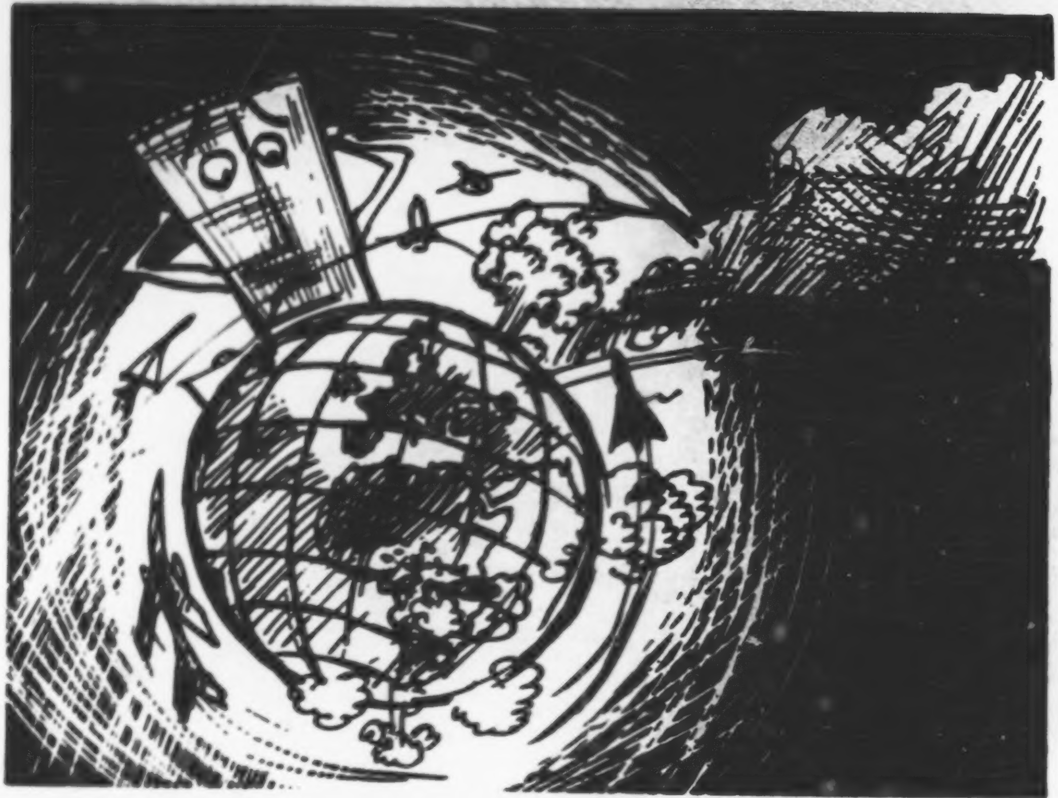


cartoons by Richard Willson

Introduction

In 1983 the United Nations had 38 years of history behind it. They are years of unprecedented change in society. The political map of the earth has been redrawn with the emergence of over a hundred new nations. The world's economy was altered by a "crunch" of raw materials and energy scarcities that threatened the ways of rich and poor alike. Human rights have taken on a broader and deeper meaning.

The United Nations has not only survived these times, it has promoted many of the positive changes and tried to deal with the negative ones. The institution established by 51 countries after the most destructive war in human history has grown to 158 Member States and has expanded its concerns over virtually the whole spectrum of human interrelationships. It has often been torn and jarred by events, but the marks it bears are those of a vital participant in the hurly-burly of international life.

Public perceptions about the United Nations have sometimes been clouded by a variety of criticisms, some made in good faith, others made out of ignorance or for political reasons. Healthy and constructive criticism is essential for the vitality and efficacy of any organization. But ill-informed criticism serves neither the United Nations nor the world community.

This booklet is an attempt to give to as wide an audience as possible some sense of the realities with which the United Nations must live. A number of the oft-repeated criticisms about the United Nations are considered here. Facts and figures are given about current situations. The intention is not to justify or rationalize. It is to inform and explain.

The questions and answers which follow deal mainly with administrative and financial practices of the United Nations. They reflect the views, curiosities and apprehensions of an often critical press and public and they are, in fact, culled from the countless queries of visitors to Headquarters, from the letters received here and from the questions raised by representatives of Governments and non-governmental organizations.

To begin, a brief description of the United Nations itself and of the United Nations system is in order.

First and foremost, it is important to understand that the United Nations is not a world government. No Member State gives up its sovereignty by joining the Organization. The United Nations can act only when its Member States decide that it should. Its achievements and its failures reflect the collective will of its Members.

The United Nations itself has six principal organs: the General Assembly, the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council, the Trusteeship Council, the International Court of Justice and the Secretariat. All are based at United Nations Headquarters in New York except the Court (which is located at The Hague, Netherlands). Many of the questions in the following pages are concerned with the work and the people of the Secretariat. Composed of the Secretary-General and a staff, the Secretariat provides essential services to the Member States which make up the United Nations.

Related to the United Nations are 17 organizations which carry out specialized functions. They are independent bodies, each with a distinct membership of Governments. These specialized organizations, together with the United Nations and another group of operational bodies set up by the General Assembly, constitute the United Nations system. Some of the questions which follow are concerned with the effectiveness of the work of this system and how its multitude of activities are co-ordinated. Other questions deal with voting and the way in which decisions are reached in, for instance, the General Assembly and the Security Council.

In general, the first part of this booklet is intended to give the reader a frame of reference for the information provided in later sections on the administrative and financial practices and on the people who work at the United Nations.

Is the United Nations really necessary?

It has been said many times and is worth repeating that if we did not have the United Nations it would have to be invented. In a period of convulsive change, the United Nations offers a forum for continuing discussion of problems and for instant consultations in emergencies.

International organization is no longer a gleam in the eye of an idealistic world. It is a fact of modern life, taken for granted in daily routines, on one level, and the corner-stone of the foreign policy of many Governments, on another. The taken-for-granted routines of various specialized agencies — postal, telecommunications and transport — would not be possible without international co-operation. Indeed, orderly trade in materials and in manufactured commodities would also be impossible without agreed and co-ordinated international arrangements.

What can the United Nations do about the state of the world?

Secretary-General Javier Pérez de Cuéllar pointed out in his first annual report on the work of the United Nations in 1982: "We live today in the presence of a chilling and unprecedented phenomenon. At the peak of world power there exist enough nuclear weapons to destroy life on our planet . . . In the middle level of world power there exist vast quantities of sophisticated, so-called conventional weapons. Indeed we have seen some of them in devastating action this very year . . . At yet another level we have the poverty of a vast proportion of the world's population . . . We have unsolved but soluble problems of economic relations, trade, distribution of resources and technology. We have many ideas and plans as to how to meet the growing needs of the large mass of humanity, but somehow such human considerations seem to take second place to the technology and funding of violence and war in the name of national security."

A good many people hold the United Nations responsible for this state of affairs. But, as mentioned above, the United Nations is not a world government, and it can act only when its Member States decide that it should. They do or do not provide it with the political will to act. They do or do not give it money, people, material and direction. They do or do not use its procedures, carry out its decisions or observe the principles of the Charter. If any one of these elements is missing, the United Nations cannot deal successfully with problems.

It is not that anyone expects countries to work in complete or continuous harmony, but Mr. Pérez de Cuéllar has noted that "time after time we have seen the Organization set aside or rebuffed, for this reason or for that, in situations in which it should, and could, have played an important and constructive role". The Secretary-General concluded: "We take the United Nations seriously when we desperately need it. I would urge that we also seriously consider the practical ways in which it should develop its capacity and be used as an essential institution in a stormy and uncertain world."

Does this mean that the United Nations has not done much?

No. The United Nations has done a great deal in the past 38 years. Some of its achievements have hit the headlines, but most are little publicized. Others are simply taken for granted. To look at a few facts:

When the Charter of the United Nations was signed, self-determination — the right of peoples to govern themselves and choose their own way of life — was a goal. The United Nations kept that goal before the conscience of the world, and today the goal has become a fact in most of the lands formerly under colonial rule.

Mediation efforts and peace-keeping forces have been instrumental in checking or resolving fighting and other disputes between Member States in many parts of the world.

The United Nations formulated mankind's first Univeral Declaration of Human Rights in 1948 and went on to adopt two International Covenants which amplify and put into binding legal form the human rights — civil and political and economic, social and cultural — set forth in the Declaration. The Covenants came into force in 1976 and they provide measures to check on complaints of human rights violations.

Many other international conventions, by which nations commit themselves to ensure particular rights, have been concluded under the auspices of the United Nations and the related agencies — conventions on genocide, slavery and forced labour, refugees, elimination of racial discrimination and of discrimination against women, and hostage-taking are just a few.

In the economic, social and humanitarian fields, achievements of the operational units of the United Nations family are impressive:

- Smallpox has been wiped out under a campaign co-ordinated by the World Health Organization. Millions of persons are being inoculated against other crippling and disabling diseases.
- An early warning system for impending grain and other food scarcities has been set up under the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations.
- The United Nations Children's Fund annually provides supplies and equipment to some 300,000 health and day-care centres and schools, works to improve water systems and trains over half a million community workers in services for children.
- Airlines all over the world operate more safely because of rules and regulations agreed upon under the auspices of the International Civil Aviation Organization.
- More than 5,000 development projects in Africa, Asia, Europe and Latin America are aided through the United Nations Development Programme, with offices in 114 developing countries.
- Aid for millions of refugees throughout the world is co-ordinated and directed by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.
- Habitat, the lead agency for the upcoming International Year of the Homeless in 1987, is tackling the problem of providing adequate shelter for the world's growing population.
- Labour standards set by the International Labour Organisation have made life safer and better for millions of workers around the world.
- Precious relics of human history such as the Egyptian temples of Abu Simbel, the temple of Borobudur in Indonesia and the Acropolis in Greece, have been saved with the help of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.
- The World Meteorological Organization's "World Weather Watch" system predicts and

monitors potential natural disasters, such as hurricanes, cyclones and earthquakes.

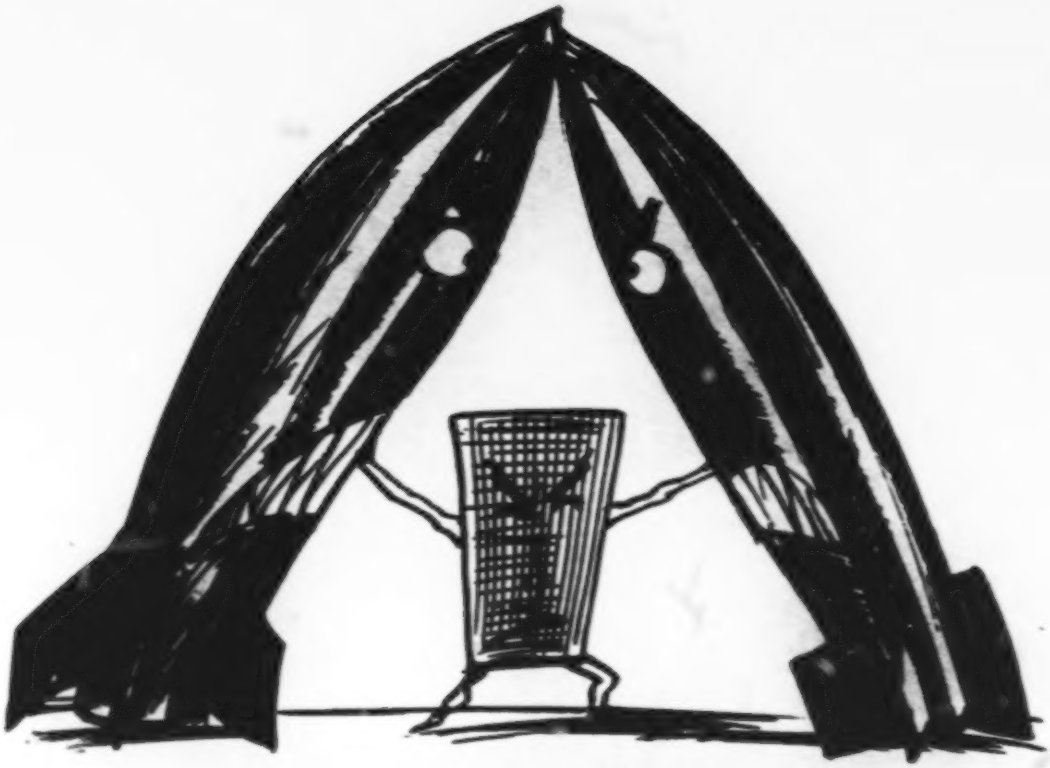
- The World Bank lends billions of dollars to countries for their development projects.
- The world economy, now caught in the worst crisis since the Great Depression of the 1930s, would be thrown into chaos if it were not for two key agencies: The International Monetary Fund and the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade. The former is central to the montary system involving most of the world's countries; the latter, an agency linked to the United Nations system, plays a major role in setting the norms of world trade.

What are peace-keeping operations and how effective have they been?

In his annual report of 1983, the Secretary-General pointed out that, while the United Nations has the obligation to help in the search for solutions to international disputes, these efforts may take a long time. It is, however, essential that this process should remain peaceful lest it endanger wider peace. Hence the importance of conflict control devices, such as peace-keeping operations, which the United Nations employs to contain conflict situations, with the consent of the parties and without prejudice to the shape of an eventual settlement.

The peace-keeping activities of the United Nations have certainly been effective in preventing the renewal of hostilities and in containing conflict situations in a number of sensitive areas in the world. Since its inception, the United Nations has set up 15 peace-keeping operations in various parts of the Middle East, in Cyprus, in Kashmir, in the Dominican Republic, in West Irian and in the Congo (now Zaire). These operations were generally established after hostilities had broken out and a cease-fire was called for by the United Nations. The functions of the peace-keeping operations are generally to observe or supervise the cease-fire, to prevent a recurrence of fighting and, in most cases, to facilitate the search for a peaceful settlement of the conflict. Most peace-keeping operations have been able to achieve these important objectives.

A good illustration of the usefulness of such operations is the establishment in 1973 of the



United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF). In October of that year, war erupted again between Egypt and Israel, and, as the intensity of fighting increased, a major crisis threatened to drag the big Powers into the conflict. The establishment of UNEF by the Security Council on 25 October 1973 and the arrival of the first elements of the Force in the theatre of operation less than 30 hours later helped to avert this grave danger, ease tension and restore a cease-fire in the area.

United Nations peace-keeping operations are not empowered by the Security Council to take military enforcement measures; those operations must be based on consent. They can be established only by the decision of the Security Council (and therefore that of the great Powers which have the veto right in the Council) and with the agreement of the parties concerned. For this reason, the United Nations was not able to intervene in certain conflict areas such as Viet Nam. Also, because the United Nations must work through persuasion and not force, United Nations soldiers are not supposed to fight except in self-defence. The United Nations peace-keeping operations can effectively prevent incidents only if they have the full co-operation of the parties. This is normally the case because the parties, in accepting a United Nations peace-keeping operation, have undertaken to co-operate with it. If they do not, it is difficult to prevent incidents from occurring.

There are at present, in addition to two observer missions, three peace-keeping forces — in Cyprus, on the Golan Heights between Israeli and Syrian forces, and in southern Lebanon. The situation in Cyprus and on the Golan Heights has been remarkably quiet after past hostilities, largely thanks to the presence of United Nations peace-keeping forces.

In southern Lebanon, the United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon (UNIFIL) was for several years an important instrument of conflict control. The limitations of peace-keeping operations were demonstrated when in June 1982 UNIFIL was overrun by Israeli troops entering Lebanon. "United Nations peace-keeping operations are not equipped, authorized, or indeed made available, to take part in military activities other than peace-keeping", the Secretary-General observed afterwards. "Their main strength is the will of the international community which they symbolize. Their weakness comes to light when the political assumptions on which they are based are ignored or overridden."

Is it fair to have a system of "one country, one vote" in an unequal world?

Just as individuals in a democracy have equal voting rights regardless of whether they are rich or poor, powerful or weak, all countries in the United Nations General Assembly have those same rights. The Assembly has been called the "Parliament of Nations" and it demonstrates a unique brand of "parliamentary diplomacy". All the problems of the world can be brought here and all States have the same rights and privileges as well as the same duties and obligations. Sovereign equality of nations also ensures that in the General Assembly the full cultural, social and political diversity of the world is reflected. In an increasingly interdependent world where events in a small nation can affect countries all around the globe, it is only sensible that no voice go unheard.

Unlike the General Assembly, the United Nations Security Council does give added weight to the votes of five countries which are its "permanent members". These are China, France, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom and the United States. They have the power to veto by their single votes any substantial decision of the Security Council, even if the four other "permanent" and the 10 "non-permanent" members agree. Over the years, the membership of the Council has been increased from 11 to 15, with 10 countries now being elected to that body for two-year terms. Under the rules of the Council its decisions must be carried by a majority of nine.

Is there an "automatic majority" which operates against any country or group?

Voting patterns change with the issues. This is not to say, however, that there have not been dominant groups in the General Assembly. During the 1950s, when the "cold war" was at its chilliest, there was a majority group in the Assembly which included the countries of the Americas and Western Europe. This majority was reduced in the 1960s by the emergence of many new States which did not align themselves with major Powers. Originally made up of African and Asian States, this "third force" was later joined by

Latin American States which shared many problems with the others. In 1964, when these States first came together to issue a declaration on economic development, they numbered 77. Since then they have been called the Group of 77, though now 125 States participate in their caucus. They have increasingly focused the work of the United Nations on economic and social development.

The majority enjoyed by the poorer countries in the General Assembly is not a new phenomenon. Of the original 51 signatories to the United Nations Charter, 32 were developing countries. The significance of what happened in the 1960s is not merely the increase of this majority, but the development of a group based on the perception of common economic and social needs. While the Group of 77 exercises a powerful influence in the General Assembly now, many of its concerns are shared by the membership as a whole.

In addition, in recent years the practice of reaching decisions by a "consensus" has grown in United Nations bodies dealing with all kinds of questions. This form of reaching agreement has been very effective in reconciling majority and minority views, without the need for voting.

Are the poorer countries in the United Nations out to soak the rich?

No. What the poorer countries are asking for is a fairer system of international economic relations. In calling for a "new international economic order" in 1974, the General Assembly was aiming for the common interest of developing and developed countries.

A new and fair global economic order, the Assembly felt, would accelerate the development of poor countries. This is good not only because it will lift millions from poverty but because it will stabilize and strengthen the world economy. Even at current levels of development, poorer countries are important elements in the global economy. At present, for instance, they absorb more of the exports of the United States than the European Common Market, Japan, and the Eastern European countries combined. In a period of recession and unemployment in industrialized countries, the buying power of developing countries has been a powerful factor in steadying the world economy. Future economic growth in developing countries will similarly benefit the world community as a whole.

Why does the United Nations hold so many world conferences?

World conferences are held to focus attention on major problems and to try and create a consensus on goals and action.

During the 1970s, there were global meetings on the environment, population, food, women's rights, trade and development, employment, human settlements, water, **apartheid**, co-operation among developing countries, science and technology, and the law of the sea. In recent years, special sessions of the General Assembly have been held on economic co-operation, disarmament, and the question of Namibia, and there will undoubtedly be further special Assembly sessions on these subjects. Also scheduled are conferences on population, on women, on aid to refugees in Africa, on restrictive business practices and on crime prevention and criminal justice, among others. In the 1980s, so far, UN-sponsored world conferences have included those on energy problems, the aging, sanctions against South Africa, the question of Palestine, Kampuchea, least developed countries, and racism.

World conferences lead countries to study problem areas which would not otherwise receive priority attention. And in most cases conferences lead to greater international co-operation. The environment problem is a textbook example. Before the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment, in 1972, the issue was not a global one. It was thought to be of concern only to industrialized countries. However, as the problem was studied, it became evident that in developing countries, too, there were factors causing damage to the environment. These countries joined in the decision to create the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), which is now performing a valuable co-ordinating and catalytic role.

Another important effect of world conferences is the creation of a new rationale for national and international action. This is what happened at the World Population Conference of 1974. By emphasizing the linkages between population and development policies, the Conference encouraged the integration of population activities in the overall development plans of developing countries. Today, the United Nations Fund for Population Activities is assisting some

150 countries and territories in a wide variety of population programmes, such as censuses and help with planning and carrying out policies to deal with birth and death rates.

As another example, the 1981 United Nations Conference on New and Renewable Sources of Energy adopted a programme of action — a virtual blueprint for national and international action in developing alternative forms of energy — in the knowledge that known supplies of petroleum would, in the long run, be unable to meet global requirements.

And, anticipating a tripling of the world's elderly by the year 2025, the 1982 World Assembly on Aging adopted an action plan to guide States in dealing with such rapidly increasing numbers.

Then there are the many conferences in the past three decades in which treaties and other legal instruments were drafted: these are the basis today of diplomatic relations and international commerce. An important recent work in international sea law was the adoption in 1982 of a convention to ensure equitable access by all countries to the vast riches of the oceans, protect them from pollution and facilitate freedom of navigation and research.

But is must be acknowledged that not every international issue lends itself to conferences. Many today feel that, depending on the nature of the issue, other methods might be useful. There is a growing awareness, too, that while it may be relatively easy to reach agreement at a conference on a goal or a plan of action, it is more difficult for Governments to carry out those plans.

In summary then, the United Nations holds conferences by joint decision of the Member States because there are urgent problems on which the world community must consult and act.

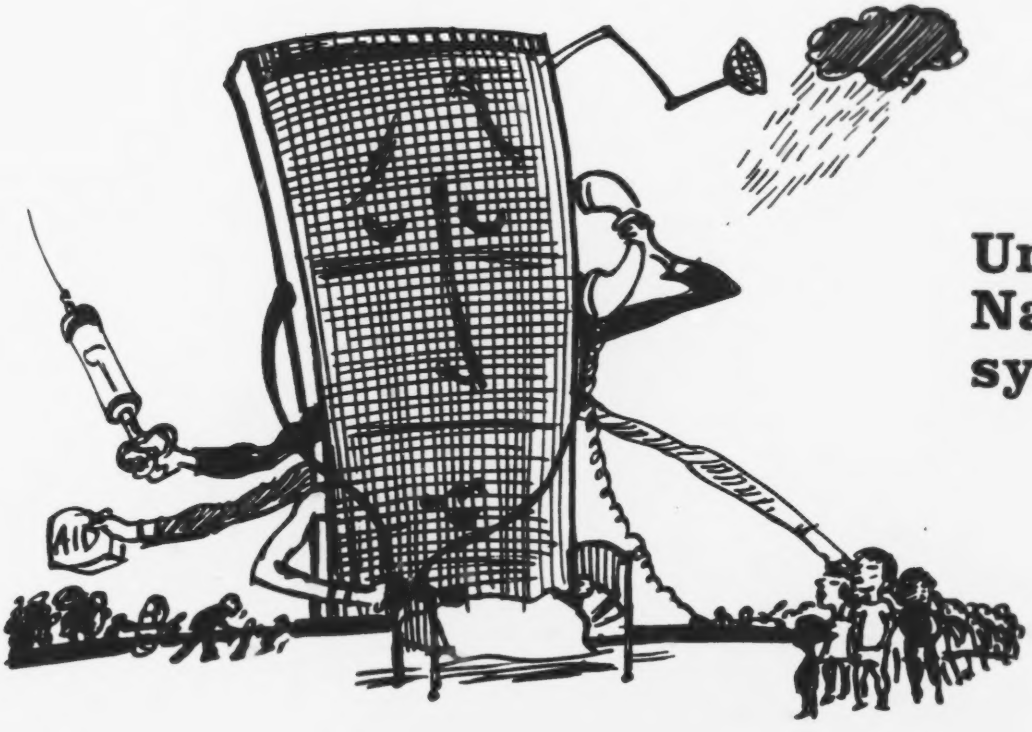
Why is the United Nations such a paper factory?

Every Government, legislature and many businesses use a lot of paper. The United Nations, in fact, uses less paper in a year than **The New York Times** does for one Sunday edition alone.

None the less, it may still look like a paper factory. There are reasons for this. For instance, the annual agenda of the General Assembly runs to about 135 items. Most of these must have some sort of supporting document, available to the Members in the six official languages of the Assembly. Studies and research papers are produced on a multitude of topics and, once again, they must be provided to each Member Government in the appropriate language. Also, the United Nations is a leading source of the world's statistics.

Nevertheless, it is a common feeling among those who work for the United Nations that the number and size of documents could be reduced with benefit to all. In a recent step to achieve this, a limit of 24 pages has been placed on most Secretariat reports.

The comment is frequently heard that these documents make very dull reading. This is quite true. But it must be kept in mind that these documents must strike a common ground of international consensus and their language must be acceptable to all. Drafting by committee has not often been known to produce lively prose. Many of these documents are legal texts whose precision is not always accompanied by readability.



United Nations system

What is the United Nations system?

The United Nations system consists of the following international organizations:

		Member countries*
UN	United Nations	158
ILO	International Labour Organisation	150
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations	152
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization	158
WHO	World Health Organization	158
World Bank	International Bank for Reconstruction and Development	158
IFC	International Finance Corporation	144
IDA	International Development Association	124
IMF	International Monetary Fund	146
ICAO	International Civil Aviation Organization	151
UPU	Universal Postal Union	166
ITU	International Telecommunication Union	158
WMO	World Meteorological Organization	157
IMO	International Maritime Organization	124
WIPO	World Intellectual Property Organization	100
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development	135
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IAEA	International Atomic Energy Agency	111
GATT	General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade	89

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*As at 20 October 1983.

The 15 organizations listed after the United Nations are "specialized agencies", a term used in the United Nations Charter. The Charter called for international organizations having wide responsibilities in economic, social, cultural, educational, health and related fields to be brought into relationship with the United Nations by formal agreements, and it gave the General Assembly and the Economic and Social Council responsibility for making recommendations for the co-ordination of their policies and activities.

The agencies were all independently established and they all have their own intergovernmental organs, secretariats and budgets. The IAEA is in a separate category, as it may report in certain instances to the Security Council as well as to the General Assembly. GATT is regarded as a **de facto** specialized agency; it does not have a formal status.

In addition, the General Assembly has established, among others, the following bodies:

Habitat	United Nations Centre for Human Settlements
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNDRO	Office of the United Nations Disaster Relief Co-ordinator
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNFPA	United Nations Fund for Population Activities
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNIDO	United Nations Industrial Development Organization*
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (Office of)
UNITAR	United Nations Institute for Training and Research
UNRWA	United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East
UNU	United Nations University
WFC	World Food Council
WFP	World Food Programme

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*UNIDO is in the process of becoming a specialized agency.

The financial and administrative autonomy of these bodies varies, depending on whether their expenses are met from the regular budget of the United Nations (UNCTAD), from voluntary contributions (UNDP, UNFPA, UNICEF and the joint UN/FAO World Food Programme), or partly from the regular budget of the United Nations and partly from voluntary contributions (UNEP, UNHCR, UNIDO and UNRWA). In all cases the General Assembly and, at the Secretariat level, the United Nations Secretary-General, retain a degree of policy and administrative oversight over their activities.

The task of assisting the Economic and Social Council and the General Assembly in co-ordinating the work of all of these organizations rests with the Administrative Committee on Co-ordination. This Committee, known as the ACC, is made up of the heads of all agencies and United Nations programmes; its Chairman is the Secretary-General.

Recent moves to improve co-ordination have used the approach of "functional co-ordination", that is, pulling together all system work related to a specific issue, such as energy. This approach has had considerable success and has been facilitated by another recent step: the adoption of programme budgeting, whereby all budget items are related to specific programmes.

Isn't this a sprawling, unplanned system?

The United Nations system has evolved in response to specific needs. It is a dynamic, expanding and pioneering international system. The world community created each organization as it became convinced of the need to have an institution working on global issues and problems in a particular area.

Some of these bodies, such as the International Labour Organisation (ILO), were established many years before the United Nations itself. Others, such as the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), are of recent vintage.

The evolution of the system can be seen by the way its underlying concepts have changed since the late 1940s. For a number of years after the Second World War, the agencies were primarily clearing-houses for information. They organized international co-operation, harmonized policy, promoted research and set standards in their respective fields. Except for the World Health Organization, they were not involved in field activities.

As the development needs of countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America came increasingly to the fore, however, the "operational" aspects of their work increased. At the same time, Members of the United Nations called for expansion of technical assistance. They established the Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance and, later, the United Nations Special Fund for pre-investment activities. These were merged in 1966 to become the United Nations Development Programme.

The United Nations system has steadily grown as a multilateral channel for development assistance. This assistance has expanded to embrace new fields – for example, with the creation of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development in 1964, the United Nations Industrial Development Organization in 1967, and the World Food Council and IFAD in 1976.

Who decides what the different units of the United Nations system do?

Governments decide. In the governing bodies of each organization, the representatives of Governments discuss the problems that call for international action. Often, when a new problem comes up, the secretariat is asked to research the issue and propose solutions. Sometimes outside experts are called in to assist. After considering proposals and recommendations, the representatives decide what action to take. They might, for instance, agree on a plan of action and make recommendations for its implementation nationally, regionally or internationally. Throughout the process, final decisions are in the hands of Governments, though the secretariat may play an important role in helping to shape them and in carrying them out.

Isn't this system pretty unwieldy?

Sometimes, but it works. The United Nations system is a loose confederacy, with the United Nations itself at the hub. Some duplication and overlapping of activities, some untidiness, is unavoidable in such an arrangement. But occasional rivalry can also be an incentive for each unit to do its best. Besides, a decentralized system can often be more effective in reaching technical ministries in each country.

Those who conceived the system as a network of separate technical organizations saw that countries could co-operate on a functional basis while disagreeing politically. Observing how the International Labour Organisation had survived while the League of Nations failed, they concluded that such a system was less vulnerable to collapse and allowed countries to express different policies in different sectors through different technical forums.

Thus, in the early years of the system, there was considerable emphasis on decentralization. Nowadays, however, countries are stressing the need for greater co-ordination and unity within the system. Governments and secretariats are trying hard to work out global policy frameworks for the activities of the individual organizations while at the same time respecting their various areas of specialization.

What is being done to improve co-ordination in the system?

In 1975, the General Assembly held a special

session on development and international economic co-operation, one purpose of which was to make the United Nations system a more effective instrument for world economic co-operation.

The Assembly called for some structural changes within the United Nations itself and for considerable streamlining. A new management plan was devised and the post of Director-General for Development and International Economic Co-operation was established. The official in this job, under the Secretary-General's direction, is charged with ensuring that effective leadership is provided in the various economic and social areas of the United Nations system. Other Secretariat changes were aimed at strengthening its capacity to do global research, analyse programmes and plans in relation to priorities established by the Assembly and give support to field programmes.

In another step, action has been taken to strengthen the authority and operating capacity of the five United Nations regional commissions, giving them additional responsibility for co-ordinating programmes in their respective areas.

The interagency Administrative Committee on Co-ordination took a new look at its structure and procedures and has considerably simplified its methods of work. It has also developed co-ordination procedures around specific issues reflecting the primary concerns of Governments.

Has this been effective?

Yes. Much depends on the extent to which Governments want change both within the United Nations Secretariat and in their own bureaucracies. Most Governments recognize the need to co-ordinate and consolidate their own policies in the different forums of the United Nations system, and if this is done there is little that can stand in the way of reform and efficiency.

United Nations finances

Who pays for the United Nations?

All 168 States that belong to one or more organizations in the United Nations system share in their expenses. The entire system now spends $3.9 billion a year, with about $2.3 billion coming from voluntary contributions, in amounts decided on by each donor. The rest is paid in the form of mandatory assessments at rates agreed by each organization, usually in accordance with a scale approved by the United Nations General Assembly.

While it is generally known that major assistance programmes such as the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) help well over a hundred countries, it is not widely appreciated that a great many of the recipients are also donors. For example, in 1982 UNDP had development projects in about 150 countries and territories, and received financial pledges – all voluntary – from 143 nations. A total of 115 countries received UNICEF assistance in 1982, while 135 donated money for its activities.

The 158 States which are Members of the United Nations are obliged by the Charter to contribute towards the regular budget of the Organization. Each country is assigned a percentage share of the budget, ranging from a minimum of 0.01 per cent to a maximum of 25 per cent. For 1983, when the net amount of the regular budget of the United Nations for the year comes to $632.6 million, the countries contributing at the minimum rate were assessed $58.834 each and the largest contributor – the United States – was required to pay $171.328.773. In addition to these "assessed" amounts, many countries make voluntary contributions to a variety of United Nations programmes and funds.

The following table shows what each Member State pays towards the regular assessed budget of the United Nations, in percentage terms as well as in absolute figures, for 1983.

Per cent of budget	1983 net assessment (US dollars)	Member States
25.00	171.328.773	United States
10.54	62.011.858	Soviet Union
10.32	60.717.492	Japan
8.54	50.245.432	Federal Republic of Germany
6.51	38.301.442	France
4.67	27.475.843	United Kingdom
3.74	22.004.208	Italy
3.08	18.121.113	Canada
1.93	11.355.111	Spain
1.78	10.472.592	Netherlands
1.57	9.237.061	Australia
1.39	8.178.035	Brazil. German Democratic Republic
1.32	7.766.192	Sweden. Ukrainian SSR
1.28	7.530.853	Belgium
0.88	5.177.461	China. Mexico
0.86	5.059.792	Saudi Arabia
0.76	4.471.444	Czechoslovakia
0.75	4.412.610	Austria. Denmark
0.72	4.236.105	Poland
0.71	4.177.271	Argentina
0.58	3.412.418	Iran
0.55	3.235.914	Venezuela
0.51	3.000.575	Norway
0.48	2.824.070	Finland
0.46	2.706.401	Yugoslavia
0.41	2.412.227	South Africa
0.40	2.353.392	Greece
0.36	2.118.053	Byelorussian SSR. India
0.32	1.889.409	Turkey
0.26	1.529.705	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya. New Zealand
0.25	1.470.870	Kuwait
0.23	1.353.201	Hungary. Israel
0.19	1.117.862	Nigeria. Romania
0.18	1.059.027	Bulgaria. Ireland. Portugal
0.16	941.358	United Arab Emirates
0.13	764.853	Algeria. Indonesia
0.12	706.019	Iraq

Per cent of budget	1983 net assessment (US dollars)	Member States
0.11	647,183	Colombia
0.09	529,514	Cuba, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore
0.08	470,680	Thailand
0.07	411,843	Chile, Egypt, Peru
0.06	353,010	Luxembourg, Pakistan
0.05	294,544	Morocco
0.04	235,341	Uruguay
0.03	176,504	Bangladesh, Dominican Republic, Iceland, Ivory Coast, Qatar, Syrian Arab Republic, Trinidad and Tobago, Tunisia
0.02	117,670	Costa Rica, Ecuador, Gabon, Ghana, Guatemala, Jamaica, Lebanon, Panama, Viet Nam, Zimbabwe
0.01	58,834	Afghanistan, Albania, Angola, Antigua and Barbuda, Bahamas, Bahrain, Barbados, Belize, Benin, Bhutan, Bolivia, Botswana, Burma, Burundi, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Chad, Comoros, Congo, Cyprus, Democratic Kampuchea, Democratic Yemen, Djibouti, Dominica, El Salvador, Equatorial Guinea, Ethiopia, Fiji, Gambia, Grenada, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, Jordan, Kenya, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Maldives, Mali, Malta, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mongolia, Mozambique, Nepal, Nicaragua, Niger, Oman, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Rwanda, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Samoa, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Solomon Islands, Somalia, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Suriname, Swaziland, Togo, Uganda, United Republic of Cameroon, United Republic

PER CENT OF BUDGET	1983 NET ASSESSMENT (US DOLLARS)	MEMBER STATES
0.01	58,834	of Tanzania, Upper Volta, Vanuatu, Yemen, Zaire, Zambia.

Contribution rates for the newest Member State, Saint Christopher and Nevis, admitted in 1983, will be approved in 1984.

Is any country unfairly burdened?

This question is often asked in the context of the large shares of the United Nations budget paid by the industralized countries. To see their contributions in perspective, the three lists which follow are helpful.

They show assessed and voluntary contributions to the United Nations system as a whole for 1982 (the latest complete figures available), as paid by the 20 largest contributors. The first list ranks the contributors according to absolute amounts in US dollars. The second ranks countries according to their per capita contribution, showing how much each person in a country pays to the United Nations system. The third list shows the proportion of a country's contribution in relation to its national income. Only four names are common to all three lists and they are all small developed nations. What the lists highlight is that countries which contribute a great deal to the United Nations are often not paying as much as others in terms of their wealth or population.

Another factor to keep in mind is that several of the major donors to the United Nations system get their money back because the United Nations spends most of it in developed countries. Geographically, 40 per cent of the United Nations regular budget is spent in New York, 25 per cent at Geneva, 13 per cent at Vienna and the balance at some 170 duty stations around the world. As far as voluntary contributions go, the situation is similar. UNDP estimates that it puts back into the United States economy, mainly through salaries of experts and purchases of equipment, 45 per cent more dollars than it gets from the United States contribution. The majority of technical

TOP 20 CONTRIBUTORS TO THE UNITED NATIONS SYSTEM, 1982

TOTAL CONTRIBUTION TO THE UN[1] (IN MILLIONS OF US DOLLARS)		PER CAPITA CONTRIBUTION[2] (IN US DOLLARS)		CONTRIBUTION BY PER CENT OF NATIONAL INCOME[3]	
United States	1.001.1	Norway	37.82	Guinea-Bissau	.931
Japan	394.1	Sweden	25.45	Gambia	.450
Federal Republic of Germany	270.0	Denmark	25.15	Congo	.435
Sweden	211.7	Kuwait	24.94	Sao Tome and Principe	.399
Netherlands	198.0	Netherlands	13.89	Democratic Yemen	.352
United Kingdom	170.0	Qatar	13.34	Liberia	.336
USSR[4]	161.5	United Arab Emirates	11.68	Norway	.327
Canada	158.0	(Switzerland[5]	8.72)	Maldives	.314
France	155.7	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	8.63	Dominica	.313
Norway	155.1	Bahrain	8.55	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	.275
Italy	147.3	Saudi Arabia	8.41	Grenada	.272
Denmark	128.8	Finland	7.23	Botswana	.254
Australia	95.0	Canada	6.49	Denmark	.252
Saudi Arabia	78.3	Australia	6.36	Sweden	.215
(Switzerland[5]	55.5)	Iceland	5.56	Cape Verde	.181
Belgium	48.3	Gabon	5.54	Seychelles	.174
Kuwait	36.4	Belgium	4.90	Togo	.165
Finland	34.7	Federal Republic of Germany	4.38	Swaziland	.161
Spain	33.8	United States	4.36	Netherlands	.157
Austria	30.5	Austria	4.05	Equatorial Guinea	.152
China	30.5	Japan	3.35		

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[1] All data include cash payments received in 1982 for assessed and voluntary contributions to the United Nations system (Official Records of the General Assembly, Supplement 11, Addendum (document A/38/11)).

[2] Based on 1981 population figures, where available.

[3] National income figures are United Nations Statistical Office estimates only, due to differing methods of calculation, for example, in centrally planned economies.

[4] Includes also contributions of the Byelorussian SSR and the Ukrainian SSR.

[5] Not a Member of the United Nations.

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experts the United Nations uses have to be drawn from developed countries and this is the case with contractual work too. Most of the United Nations' money is deposited with banks in developed countries.

These facts have led some nations to propose that countries where United Nations offices are located should pay a higher share of the United Nations budget than they do now. So far, however, assessment rates have not taken this factor into account.

Who decides how much each country will pay?

The rate of contribution of each Member State to the United Nations regular budget is fixed by the General Assembly, on the advice of an 18-member Committee on Contributions. The total amount of the budget, which is the other factor determining the actual sum each State must contribute, is determined by the Assembly after considering a two-year budget proposed by the Secretary-General and the recommendations of a 16-member Advisory Committee on Administrative and Budgetary Questions. Both of these advisory bodies are composed of experts elected by the Assembly in their individual capacity from a wide geographical range of countries.

How are assessment rates decided?

The primary factor taken into account by the Contributions Committee is a country's capacity to pay as measured by estimates of its national income, adjusted in relation to its per capita income. Thus, the wealthier countries pay more and the poorer countries pay less. But to avoid a situation in which the richest country might be obliged to pay too large a share of the budget, the Assembly has fixed a maximum rate of 25 per cent for any contributor. Applied so far only to the United States, this ceiling lowers the contribution which that country would otherwise be asked to make on the basis of national income estimates alone (which might be about 30 per cent). The rates of other countries are raised to make up the difference.

At the other end of the scale, the Assembly has fixed a minimum rate of contribution of 0.01 per cent of the total budget, paid by 78 countries, which would in most cases pay less if only their national income was taken into account.

Is the scale of contributions ever reviewed?

The scale of contributions is normally reviewed in its entirety every third year, on the basis of the latest available national income statistics. In 1979, however, the General Assembly requested the Committee on Contributions to review ways to increase the fairness and equity of the scale of assessments. In 1981, the Assembly asked the Committee to draw up guidelines for the collection of national income statistics by Member States on a uniform and comparable basis. At the same time, it called on the Committee to study alternative methods to assess the real capacity of Member States to pay. One alternative suggested by the Committee would be to set up a scale by groupings of countries; another alternative was based on the number of personnel employed; one used national wealth as a measurement of capacity to pay; and one would take into account circumstances adversely affecting the capacity of States to pay. The Committee was to complete its study on alternative methodologies and its set of guidelines in 1984.

Do the criteria used in determining assessments apply in all cases?

No. For instance a special scale of assessments is applied for assessments which finance some of the peace-keeping forces in the Middle East. It is based on the regular scale, but allows reductions organizations of the United Nations system rather than by UNDP itself. The voluntary contributions, being outside the regular budgets, are known as extrabudgetary funds.

The following table shows how much money was received by most of the organizations in 1982 – both assessed and voluntary contributions – year established and number of staff.

Organization	**Size of staff**	**Estimated expenditures**	**Year established**
United Nations	16,019*	2.550.004.500	1945
International Labour Organisation (ILO)	3.036	141.819.600	1919
Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO)	6.884	449.706.000	1945
United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)	3.512	274.164.900	1946
International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO)	1.337	22.507.000	1947
World Health Organization (WHO)	4.403	277.514.800	1948
Universal Postal Union (UPU)	151	8.628.700	1874
International Telecommunication Union (ITU)	953	35.705.500	1865
World Meteorological Organization (WMO)	408	22.239.100	1950
International Maritime Organization (IMO)	294	9.693.100	1958
World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO)	265	8.900.300	1970
International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA)	1.526	109.072.500	1957

*Also there are 10,662 other staff members, serving in UNDP (5,931), UNICEF (2,796), UNHCR (1,394) and other United Nations organs.

The uses of funds of the four financial agencies located in Washington, D.C., differ from the other organizations in the system. Three of them operate mainly by making loans and extending credits for development purposes, while the fourth – the International Monetary Fund – sells currency to help its member States meet temporary foreign payments difficulties. Quite apart from these transactions they also have administrative budgets, the amounts of which in the 1983 fiscal year are shown in the following table, along with the number of staff members and year of establishment of each:

Organization	Administrative budget	Size of staff	Year established
World Bank and International Development Association (IDA)	559.146.000	5.983	1945*
International Monetary Fund (IMF)	165.400.000	1.537	1945
International Finance Corporation (IFC)	39.280.000	437	1956

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*IDA 1960

Is the United Nations wasteful and spendthrift?

The United Nations spends nearly $650 million a year under its regular budget; the United Nations system – including voluntary funds – about $3.9 billion. These are large sums; but to get some sense of perspective, consider that the budget for the New York City Police Department is larger than the United Nations regular budget, while the annual budget of the state of Louisiana in the United States, which has a population of 4 million, exceeds the total expenditures of the entire United Nations family. And the money the world spends on arms in a single year – $800 billion by some estimates – would pay for the entire United Nations system for two centuries.

Who holds the purse-strings?

In the United Nations, no money from the regular budget can be spent for purposes not authorized by the General Assembly. This authorization takes the form of approval of a budget every second year. The budget is proposed by the Secretary-General after careful scrutiny, and in most cases paring down, of requests from individual Secretariat departments. The proposed budget first goes to the Advisory Committee on Administrative and Budgetary Questions, which carefully combs through it and recommends reductions. (A 21-member Committee for Programme and Co-ordination studies programme activities rather than costs.)

Both the proposed budget and the Advisory

Committee's recommendations are examined in the Assembly's Fifth (Administrative and Budgetary) Committee, composed of all Member States. There, over a three-month period, all proposed expenditures are subject to further careful scrutiny. Days are sometimes spent discussing whether a proposed activity warrants additional expenditures, and how much. Whenever an Assembly Committee recommends an additional task for the United Nations, before the Assembly can take final action it must be given cost estimates from the Secretary-General, and be reviewed by the Advisory Committee and the Fifth Committee. Not a single post can be added to the regular budget without the explicit consent of the Fifth Committee.

So that the overall purposes of the Organization's expenditures can be borne in mind and each proposed activity seen in relation to the whole, the Secretary-General draws up a proposed medium-term plan covering a six-year period. This plan is examined for several weeks by the Programme and Co-ordination Committee. Its recommendations are forwarded to the General Assembly, which takes the final decisions on the plan.

To give Member States and the public a clearer picture of how the money is to be spent, the United Nations uses a programme budgeting system which shows what each activity will cost **in toto**—whether it be a study, a seminar, or the Organization's entire range of activities in statistics or any other field.

Who watches the till?

Once funds are appropriated, the usual internal controls are applied to ensure that money is spent only for authorized purposes and in as economical a manner as possible. The central control mechanism is located in the Office of Financial Services, which designates financial officers to allot funds, authorize expenditures and see to it that proper records are kept.

In addition, the Assembly has created a Joint Inspection Unit (JIU), whose inspectors, appointed by the Assembly, have broad powers of investigation in all matters having a bearing on the efficiency of services and the proper use of funds, not only in the United Nations but in many related agencies as well. This Unit produces half a

JIU

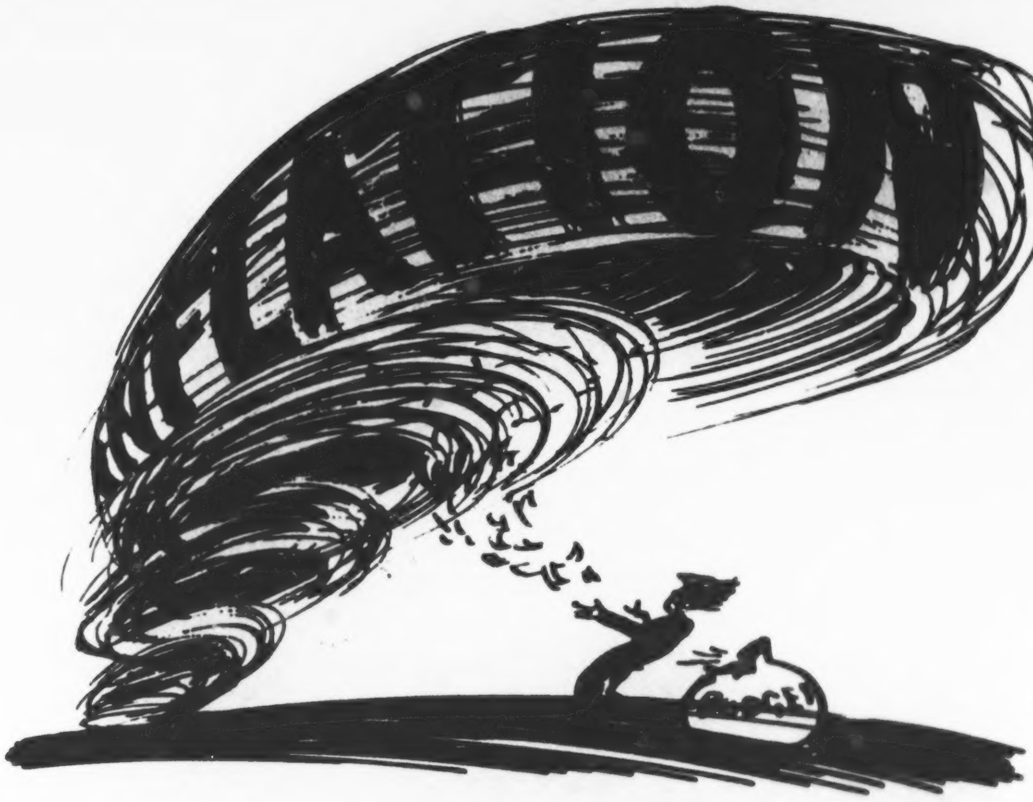
dozen reports each year on topics which it or the Assembly regards as trouble-spots, ranging from the administration of a research centre located far from Headquarters to the better management of the Organization's heavy schedule of conferences. Its recommendations appear in public documents which are discussed by the Fifth Committee or any other intergovernmental body directly concerned. Once approved by the Assembly or the governing body of a specialized agency, the recommendations must be implemented by the officials concerned.

Finally, after the money is spent, there is a complete audit of the accounts, first by the Secretariat's own internal auditors and then by a Board of External Auditors. The Board consists of the Auditors-General of three States chosen by the Assembly, and each appoints a staff of auditors who visit United Nations offices around the world for a close-up look into financial practices. (Similar external auditors go over the books of other United Nations organizations.) The auditors not only examine the balance-sheets, they make recommendations for improved financial and management procedures whenever they find any defects in the system. The auditors' findings and recommendations appear in published documents, and their reports are submitted for approval and follow-up action by the Assembly and other intergovernmental bodies concerned.

How does the United Nations shop for its goods and services?

Throughout the United Nations system the rule is the same: contracts for supplies, equipment and services can be signed only after competitive bidding. The only exception is where bids are not practical, as when an item must be obtained in a hurry or only small amounts are involved. The organizations maintain registers of prospective sources from all over the world and to the greatest extent possible bids to supply their needs are solicited internationally.

In recent years, with the blessing of member Governments, the procurement services of all United Nations organizations have been co-operating with each other on a regular basis so as to obtain the best buys. One of the largest purchasers of equipment in the system is the UNDP, whose Inter-Agency Procurement Services


INFLATION
BUDGET

Unit has been co-ordinating co-operative buying among the agencies. To gain advantages from volume purchasing, certain United Nations organizations have been assigned to take the lead procuring particular goods on behalf of the others.

Have United Nations expenses increased inordinately?

The United Nations is not immune from the high rates of inflation and sharp fluctuations of currency exchange rates that have afflicted the world's economy during the past decade. These have been largely responsible for driving expenditures rapidly upwards from year to year.

The United Nations regular budget in 1983 is almost three times what it was a decade ago, attributable both to new and expanded activities and to inflationary pressures. Understandably, the Secretary-General has been exhorted by the major contributors to strive for financial restraint. The proposed budget for 1984-1985 represents a real growth rate—after discounting the effect of inflation and currency rate changes—of 0.7 per cent over the two-year period.

Describing how his budgetary proposals were arrived at, the Secretary-General said he had "directed programme managers to exercise maximum restraint in their budgetary requests, while ensuring at the same time that provision is made for the fulfilment of their objectives and related activities. Considerable efforts were expended," he said, "in determining priorities and in redeploying resources". Referring to the resulting growth rate of less than 1 per cent, he explained: "A certain degree of growth as currently calculated does not at all mean that the Organization is, in fact, managing a larger programme or undertaking additional activities. On the contrary, in the present circumstances, it often does little more than compensate for the reduction in the overall level of the resources made available to the Organization."

Does the United Nations keep its money in bank accounts paying little interest?

The United Nations generally gets the highest prevailing interest rates for the money it keeps in banks. In a few cases, interest rates have been below normal when voluntary funds are contributed by a Government which insists that the money be held in a bank of its choosing, at whatever interest rates it decides upon.

Does the United Nations have a surplus of funds?

On the contrary: the Organization is having continuing financial difficulties because of late payments, and in some cases non-payment by a number of countries, of their full dues. At present the deficit on the regular budget account is in the vicinity of $335 million. In 1982 the United Nations "working capital fund" of $40 million, contributed to by all Member States, was increased to $100 million, because the Organization had repeatedly been obliged to dip into it to meet recurring annual cash shortfalls caused by late payments or defaults.

Some units of the United Nations system—including UNDP, UNFPA and UNICEF—are entirely dependent on voluntary contributions. UNICEF is unique in that it gets about 25 per cent of its budget from contributions by individuals and non-governmental organizations. Because such contributions are not predictable, there is need to keep enough money in the bank to cover all of UNICEF's many commitments. This is by no means a "surplus", as this money is fully committed and only sits in the bank long enough for the bills to come in.

Why do some countries refuse to pay part of their dues?

Over the past decade or more, several Member States have declined to pay for certain of the Organization's activities which they regarded as illegal. They did this by withholding from their assessed contributions amounts corresponding to the share of the contested activities in the regular budget as a whole. Their argument has been that, if the activity in question is contrary to the United Nations Charter, as they maintain, then they cannot be compelled under the Charter to help pay for it.

The expenditures to which objections have been raised relate mainly to certain peace-keeping operations which some countries contend were established contrary to the Charter. This question first arose in regard to the first United Nations Emergency Force (UNEF) stationed between Egyptian and Israeli lines from 1956 to 1967, and later with respect to the United Nations Operation in the Congo (now Zaire), which assisted that country in its post-independence difficulties between 1960 and 1964. The Soviet Union, among the permanent members of the Security Council, along with 12 other countries, objected to the establishment of UNEF by the General Assembly on the ground that only the Security Council could legally establish such a force.

The countries which objected to the creation of these forces have extended their objections to repayment of the United Nations bond issue, authorized by the Assembly in 1961. The Organization sold almost $170 million worth of bonds to 64 countries, and used the proceeds to help finance deficits in the accounts of the Middle East and Congo forces. Funds for repayment of principal and payment of interest on the bonds are included by the Assembly in each regular budget, with repayment scheduled to be completed in 1990.

Fifteen countries will have withheld a projected total of $43.1 million in regard to the bonds as of December 1983. They include China, Mongolia, South Africa, the Soviet Union and Eastern European countries, and Viet Nam. France was on the list until 1971, but now pays in full.

Some States have also withheld assessed contributions relating to the most recent peace-keeping forces in the Middle East. Some Arab States take this position on the ground that the costs should be borne by the country they regard as the aggressor in the region—Israel. China has maintained that it has no financial obligations with respect to the Security Council decisions to establish the forces, in which it did not participate, but has recently agreed to contribute to peace-keeping operations.

The great majority of Member States pay their assessed contributions in full, though sometimes with a certain delay. Those which oppose the withholding of payment on grounds of principle argue that the membership has a collective financial responsibility towards the Organization even though every State might not agree with each and every expenditure.

Have funds been withheld for other reasons?

As of December 1983, a total of 15 countries will have withheld some of their contributions for other items in the regular budget. The largest withholding was by South Africa, which said it would pay up on assurance that its rights in the Organization were fully restored. The estimated total of these withholdings by all countries was expected to total $25.8 million as of December 1983.

Some countries object to the inclusion in the regular budget of appropriations for technical assistance activities, maintaining that such work should be financed entirely on a voluntary basis under the United Nations Development Programme. Five nations — Bulgaria, the Byelorussian SSR, the German Democratic Republic, the Ukrainian SSR and the USSR — offer their share for these activities in their own non-convertible currencies, rather than in United States dollars as provided for in the United Nations Financial Regulations. The United Nations accepts these currencies only to the extent that they can be used for such expenses as purchases of equipment from the countries concerned and the financing of seminars in those countries. The unused portion is listed as a withholding. The amounts involved will total an estimated $19.9 million as of December 1983.

What has been done about such withholding of funds?

The majority of Member States, which pay their assessments in full, point to a provision in the Charter which in their view obliges all States to pay their share of any expenditure duly authorized by the General Assembly. The provision in question — paragraph 2 of Article 17 — reads: "The expenses of the Organization shall be borne by the Members as apportioned by the General Assembly."

Asked for an advisory opinion by the Assembly, the International Court of Justice found in 1962 that the expenditures for the two operations in the Congo and the Middle East constituted "expenses of the Organization" within the meaning of Article 17 of the Charter. The Assembly voted to accept this opinion later the same year, but the withholding of contributions for these operations continued on grounds of principle.

A number of Member States wanted to apply against the withholding countries the provision in Article 19 of the Charter which states: "A Member of the United Nations which is in arrears in the payment of its financial contributions to the Organization shall have no vote in the General Assembly if the amount of its arrears equals or exceeds the amount of the contributions due from it for the preceding two full years . . ."

In 1965 the impasse was referred to a Special Committee on Peace-keeping Operations. Late that year the Assembly accepted a report by the Committee recommending that the question of the applicability of Article 19 should not be raised with regard to the Middle East and Congo operations, and that the financial difficulties of the Organization should be solved through voluntary contributions by Member States, with the highly developed countries making substantial contributions.

Despite several efforts to reach agreement on financial issues, including the problem of withholding, most nations which had declined to pay for certain items have maintained their position of principle. They contend that the United Nations' financial difficulties can be resolved by other methods, including removal of the objectionable items from the budget and tighter controls over expenditures.

Twenty-eight countries have made voluntary contributions in response to repeated appeals by the General Assembly for assistance to meet the Organization's financial difficulties. The amount received since 1965 is $42.6 million, to which can be added another $39.1 million in interest earned, public contributions and other income, as of December 1983.

The contributors were: Japan ($12.5 million); United Kingdom ($9,527,943); China ($5 million); France ($3.9 million); Canada ($3,871,769); Sweden ($2 million); Italy ($1,499,755); United Arab Emirates ($1 million); Denmark ($987,766); Norway ($678,136); Finland ($507,865); Kuwait and Saudi Arabia ($250,000 each); Sudan, Yugoslavia and Zaire ($100,000 each); Iceland ($80,000); Egypt and Greece ($50,000 each); Ghana and Nigeria ($20,000 each); Uganda ($19,000); Zambia ($14,000); Jamaica ($10,000); Malta ($9,000); Liberia ($8,000); Tunisia ($5,000); Mali ($4,990).

United Nations people

Are all the people at the United Nations diplomats?

No. In fact, there are three main groups, each serving different masters. They are:

1) Delegates—representing Governments.
2) Representatives of other organizations.
3) Staff members of United Nations organizations.

Delegates. All Member States are represented at United Nations meetings by delegates who express their Governments' views and vote their Governments' positions. At United Nations Headquarters, 156 out of the 158 Member States maintain "permanent missions", which in effect are their countries' embassies to the world Organization. The heads of these missions are ambassadors to the United Nations and make up the core of the diplomatic community in New York.

During the last three months of each year—the most active period for multilateral diplomacy—some 2,900 diplomats come to New York to take part in sessions of the General Assembly. Normally members of their country's foreign service, these delegates have a range of legal privileges and immunities to permit them to work free from outside interference or pressure. These include exemption from local taxation and immunity from legal action. Such privileges and immunities are allowable under international law for practically all diplomats everywhere, whether at the United Nations or elsewhere around the globe. Delegates may be found wherever United Nations meetings are held, and they are permanently stationed at the headquarters of the various agencies in the United Nations system. All are paid by their own Governments.

United Nations diplomacy is a special brand of an ancient art. Through their delegates, Governments seek both publicly and privately to make their positions known and accepted on the world stage. As a magnet for diplomats, the United Nations has become an ideal place for formal and informal contacts between nations at all levels, from technical to high policy. The largest assemblage of foreign ministers in any one place can be found every September at the opening of the General Assembly's annual session. Countries large and small use the United Nations as a forum for their foreign policy.

Representatives of other organizations. International contacts take place nowadays on many levels, governmental and non-governmental. The United Nations family has no monopoly on international organization. Wherever there is a special interest or concern, there is likely to be an organization to propagate it.

Some of these bodies, like the United Nations, are composed of Governments. The best-known of these are regional organizations such as the Organization of American States, the Organization of African Unity and the League of Arab States. They maintain permanent observer missions at the United Nations and often play a role in its meetings.

Many organizations are made up of individuals or national bodies. Some 800 of these non-governmental organizations (NGOs) have "consultative status" with the Economic and Social Council, which gives them the right to present their views at meetings of the Council and its commissions. Their representatives often have considerable influence in the work of the United Nations, because many of them speak for broad national and international constituencies.

In some cases, NGOs have been responsible for major initiatives affecting the course of the United Nations. For example, it was at the initiative of some of these organizations that the United Nations moved to hold a world conference on the status of women, and to declare 1979 the International Year of the Child and 1985 the International Youth Year. Other NGOs, such as the International Red Cross, often work closely with United Nations relief agencies following disasters.

As a public body concerned with the leading issues of the day, the United Nations and its activities are a frequent subject for journalists. The world's major news organizations have reporters stationed at United Nations Headquarters and sitting in on its various gatherings wherever they are held. More than 300 news men and women are permanently accredited to the United Nations in New York, while twice that number may attend major meetings.

Staff members of the United Nations family. Spread over some 620 duty stations around the world are the approximately 50,000 people who work for the organizations of the United Nations system. They are members of an "international civil service" which dates back to the League of Nations and even before. They perform a wide range of duties, from servicing meetings and writing reports to keeping the world's statistics, fighting disease, developing agriculture and monitoring space activities. Professional members of the United Nations staff are recruited internationally and can be asked to serve wherever the Organization's work has to be done. The technical, clerical and "blue collar" staff members are largely recruited from the locality where they work.

Each United Nations organization has its own staff, known as its secretariat. They are directed and paid not by their home Governments but by the organization employing them. Of the 50,000 in the system, over 16,000 belong to the United Nations Secretariat, whose Headquarters is in New York but whose personnel serve in many places throughout the world. Personnel policies and practices are not uniform throughout the system, but there are many common elements, particularly in regard to pay scales and allowances.

Military Observers, paid by their Governments but given a daily allowance by the United Nations, watch over armed forces' movements where countries have consented to a peace-keeping operation. They are not staff members but they perform duties assigned to the Organization.

The rest of this section of the booklet focuses on these international workers—what they do, how they are chosen, what they are paid. In some cases, the information given applies to the entire international civil service, in others to the United Nations Secretariat.

What do United Nations staff members do?

The tasks of the international civil service are set by the General Assembly and the corresponding policy-making bodies of the other organizations. These tasks run the gamut of international relations, and the United Nations system has a steady need for specialists in a variety of fields, administrators to keep the machinery running smoothly and linguists to enable people speaking different languages to communicate with one another.

Some 30 per cent of the jobs in the United

Nations system (19,500 out of 50,000) are in the **Professional** category. These include the economists, administrators, sociologists, lawyers, agronomists, medical doctors and others who write reports, prepare studies and advise Governments. They also include translators, interpreters and other linguists. Junior Professionals must normally have an advanced university degree. Candidates for higher-level Professional posts are expected to have the required experience in their fields.

Included among these Professionals are some 7,350 **technical assistance experts** employed by the United Nations system. These people work in field projects in developing countries, usually for fixed periods. Experts are normally required to have reached a high professional standing after long experience in their fields of specialization.

A **General Service** category of staff performs the clerical, secretarial and related functions essential to the work of any organization. Most such staff are locally recruited where a United Nations organization has offices. They make up about 60 per cent of all staff.

There is a special group of staff called **Field Service** who handle communications and specialized maintenance tasks for United Nations peace-keeping missions. They are always ready to serve with any peace-keeping operation that may be set up on short notice.

All United Nations staff members are required to make the following oath or declaration when assuming their duties:

> "I solemnly swear (undertake, affirm, promise) to exercise in all loyalty, discretion and conscience the functions entrusted to me as an international civil servant of the United Nations, to discharge these functions and regulate my conduct with the interests of the United Nations only in view, and not to seek or accept instructions in regard to the performance of my duties from any Government or other authority external to the Organization."

What languages does the United Nations speak?

There are some 2,000 languages spoken in the world, and among United Nations staff members, more than 150 mother tongues are represented. But to avoid a Babel of tongues, a handful have been selected as "official" and "working" languages.

The General Assembly uses six official languages — Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish. These are the languages into which its documents are translated and its speeches interpreted. The working languages, which the Secretariat uses in its daily work, are English and French, and staff members may use either language in written communications. In some areas, mostly in regional commissions, Arabic, Chinese, Spanish and Russian are used as working languages, and staff members may be required to work in them. All Professional staff, regardless of nationality, must have an excellent knowledge of one of the working languages and are encouraged to have a good command of at least one other official language.

Each of the other principal organs and each specialized agency selects its own official and working languages. In the United Nations and most of the other organizations, the costs of the language services are shared by the entire membership. If a delegate wants to address a meeting in a language which is not an official language of the body concerned, he must provide his own interpretation.

To whom are United Nations staff loyal?

Every person has many loyalties: to family, country and — for some — humanity as a whole. No international civil servant is expected to give up these loyalties. In fact, the organizations they serve would be the losers if their staff failed to reflect the world's diverse cultures and interests.

Rarely does a conflict of loyalty arise for an international employee in the performance of duty. What is expected of such a person is impartiality and a determination to act in the interest of the organization rather than of any single country. Whatever their personal or national preferences, at their best they will bend over backwards to avoid letting their own feelings stand in the way of their work.

International civil servants do not give up their citizenship or their legal obligations to their mother country when they accept an appointment with the Secretariat. However, they are duty-bound to reject outside influences in their work. This standard of conduct is set out in the United Nations Charter (Article 100): "In the performance of their duties the Secretary-General and the staff shall not seek or receive instructions from any government or from any other authority external to the Organization . . ."

Even should human frailty rear its ugly head and impartiality become difficult, it is rare that any serious damage is done. Since all staff members work side by side with so many different nationalities, it is very difficult for any of them to pursue a partial line in favour of one Government or group of States. In practice, therefore, international civil servants do achieve a large measure of impartiality.

From time to time, some newspapers make a big story out of "spies" at the United Nations. Spy novels to the contrary, there are very few "secrets" at the United Nations that are worth a spy's time to ferret out, mostly because the vast bulk of the Organization's business is already in the public domain.

There is no conflict between patriotism and maintaining the highest standards of the international civil service. The task of international workers is to maximize as far as possible the common good of the world community, the guiding principles of behaviour being derived from the United Nations Charter. In trying to do this, the international civil servant acts in the highest interest of his or her own country.

How are staff members selected?

Article 101 of the United Nations Charter says that Secretariat staff "shall be appointed by the Secretary-General under regulations established by the General Assembly". It adds: "The paramount consideration in the employment of the staff and in the determination of the conditions of service shall be the necessity of securing the highest standards of efficiency, competence, and integrity. Due regard shall be paid to the importance of recruiting the staff on as wide a geographical basis as possible."

Put in plainer language, the United Nations tries to hire qualified people from all around the world. But recruitment of staff members has proved a complex and difficult task because of the swift growth in the Organization's membership, the vast range of specialties with which an international Secretariat must deal and the requirement that staff members be fluent in one of the working languages, which for many otherwise qualified candidates is not their mother tongue.

To achieve high levels of competence along with a fair geographical balance, the United Nations is undertaking a systematic global recruitment effort. As a rule, competitive examinations are being used for recruitment, particularly of junior Professional staff. Rosters of eligible candidates are maintained, and any qualified person can be considered for a job with the Secretariat.

Why is there need for geographical balance among staff?

The United Nations Secretariat functions as a nerve-centre for the international community, receiving and communicating the many impulses necessary for a complex world to co-operate and avoid conflict. To perform this role, the Secretariat must have people in it who are sensitive to a wide diversity of political, social and cultural systems. Its staff must be a microcosm of the world community. The Secretariat's composition has to reflect the membership of the United Nations if Member States are to have confidence in it. To this end the Organization tries to recruit people from all over the world.

Personnel policy for the United Nations follows guidelines set by the Member States, acting through the General Assembly. The need for a better geographical balance has been repeatedly stressed in Assembly resolutions. Why this should be necessary can be explained by recalling a little history.

The staff recruited immediately after the founding of the United Nations were drawn heavily from the countries of Western Europe and North America. An imbalance in geographical representation was thus created at the very beginning, and, as many new States joined, the imbalance became more disturbing to much of the membership. In particular, the developing countries have pointed out that an Organization which devotes so much of its efforts to improving the lot of third world nations should have people from those countries adequately represented, especially in policy-making posts.

Are there nationality quotas for hiring United Nations staff?

Yes, but they are applied flexibly and only to a selected group of jobs.

The system of geographical distribution affects some 3,000 Professional posts which are considered to be the core of the Secretariat. These are the posts occupied by economists, administrators, lawyers, social experts, information officers and others whose work must be responsive to the needs of all countries. These posts are known in United Nations jargon as "subject to geographical distribution".

Exempted from geographical distribution are secretaries, clerks, security officers, manual workers and others who in most cases are hired locally in the countries where United Nations offices are located. Another important group, some 960 posts — nearly one-quarter of the Secretariat's Professional staff — not subject to geographical distribution is that of interpreters, translators and other staff with special linguistic skills. They can best be recruited from countries where one of the official languages of the United Nations is spoken. In addition, technical assistance experts do not formally come under the geographical distribution system, though an attempt is made to recruit them from the broadest possible range of countries.

How is the system of geographical ranges applied?

Each country belonging to the United Nations is assigned what is called a "desirable range" of posts. This is neither a single nor an immutable figure. When the number of nationals of a country who are employed in the Secretariat is within this country's range, the country is considered to be appropriately represented. When the country has too few or too many staff members as measured by this range, recruitment officers know that they must make extra efforts to restore the balance by hiring more — or fewer — persons of that nationality.

The main difference between this system and a true quota system is its flexibility. Although special attention is paid to hiring applicants whose nationality is insufficiently represented among the staff, the principal consideration is always competence.

In calculating each country's desirable range, three factors are taken into consideration. The first is membership in the United Nations. Each Member State is allotted at least a range of two to 14 posts, so that nationals of all Members can aspire to jobs in the Secretariat.

The remaining posts are then distributed mainly according to each Member State's contribution to the regular budget, but with a special allowance for population. The larger the contribution of a country, the greater is its desirable range and, accordingly, the larger is the number of its nationals who can be hired by the United Nations. Thus, the United States, as the largest contributor, has the largest desirable range – 409 to 553 posts. As of 30 June 1983, there were 484 United States nationals holding geographical posts in the Secretariat.

The population factor affects the distribution of only 240 of the geographical posts. These are allotted not to individual States but to geographical regions, according to the size of their population.

This is undoubtedly a complicated system. But it is one born of compromise and designed to reflect the needs and demands of many countries which may differ extensively in wealth, population and culture but which are equal members of the international community.

Do third world people predominate in the Secretariat?

No. In fact, the General Assembly has consistently called for improved representation of nationals of developing countries in the Secretariat and at the senior levels in particular. The latest figures indicate that nationals of developing countries comprise some 42 per cent of posts subject to geographical distribution. At the senior levels, the percentage is about 49 per cent.

In the light of the current desirable ranges, most individual regions of the developing world are "adequately" represented in the Secretariat, or only slightly "above-range", with Africa holding the largest number of posts above-range.

Do Governments pressure the United Nations on behalf of their nationals?

Few Governments have refrained from interven ing in the selection of United Nations staff, usually by offering candidates to the Secretariat. There is nothing illegal or necessarily harmful about this. Quite the contrary: the Secretariat, with the approval of the General Assembly, often actively seeks the help of Governments in finding suitable candidates. Whenever a job opens up, the normal practice is to circulate its description among existing staff members, to national delegations, and to universities and professional organizations.

Member States have a legitimate interest in seeing to it that their nationals are employed so as to assure the international character of the Secretariat. But from time to time problems have arisen when Governments tried to push candidates whom the Organization does not regard as the best available for a given job. Such a practice is not unknown in even the most politically insulated national civil services, but it is resisted on the ground that it cannot help but inhibit rational decision-making in personnel matters. There is also a structural barrier to help resist pressures on appointments and maintain high standards: All candidates must be considered by a board composed of both administration and staff representatives, which makes an independent recommendation.

While recruitment takes into consideration the national origins of candidates, their rise within the Secretariat does not; it is based mainly on merit and seniority. Eligibility for promotion is decided by Secretariat panels on which both administration and staff are represented. Much emphasis has been placed in recent years on strengthening this merit system, partly by instituting better methods for evaluating each individual's performance. This is one element in a series of personnel reforms currently being carried out.

Secretary-General Pérez de Cuéllar has declared his opposition to undue government interference in hiring and promotions. Shortly after taking office in 1982, he told the Headquarters staff: "I am determined to do my utmost to preserve and defend the independent and international character of the Secretariat and to resist any attempts that tend to erode the principle." Noting that the General Assembly had reaffirmed the obligations of Member States to respect the international character of the responsibilities of the Secretary-General and the staff, he pledged:

"As part of my effort to maintain the independent status of the Secretariat, I shall see to it that the career service of the staff will not be adversely affected by any considerations unrelated to merit."

Does any Member State have a right to any particular post?

The General Assembly has explicitly opposed the notion that any post can be regarded as belonging to a particular nationality. Delegates have protested against attempts by some countries to claim posts as reserved for them, even at lower levels of the Secretariat. They note that such a practice could make the Secretariat too rigid, inhibiting appointments and promotions on the basis of merit.

At the highest levels of the Secretariat, however, efforts are necessarily made to maintain a balance among officials from all regions of the world. For this reason, appointments to the ranks of Under-Secretary-General and Assistant Secretary-General take political considerations into account.

Posts at this level are akin to ministerial, as distinct from civil service positions in national administrations, and most such appointments are made on a political basis. Nevertheless, many of those chosen for these positions come from distinguished private or public careers in their own countries and even in a number of cases from the international civil service itself.

Are there rules on nepotism?

Yes, there are. All applicants for posts with the United Nations Secretariat must state whether they have relatives employed in any international organization. Except where another person equally well qualified cannot be appointed, a person whose father or mother, son or daughter, brother or sister works for the Secretariat cannot be hired. But even when an immediate relative is hired, such persons cannot be assigned to a post which is under the authority of their kin.

A strict rule against the hiring of a spouse of a staff member was rescinded by the Secretary-General in 1980 at the request of a group of Member States. (The rules never did forbid staff members from marrying one another after they were employed nor did they require one to leave after such a marriage.)

The aim of lifting the restriction was to assist the Secretariat in finding more women to work for it, thereby increasing the proportion of women on the staff. The Secretariat had found that many qualified women who would have wanted to serve with it declined to do so because their husbands would have been denied the chance to work for the United Nations. Some women staff members had even had to give up their careers with the Secretariat so that their husbands could be employed.

What is being done to avoid discrimination against women in the Secretariat?

Since 1978 the Secretariat has been making a special effort – with prodding from the General Assembly – to ensure equal opportunity for women and avoidance of all discrimination against them This is in line with Article 8 of the United Nations Charter, which stipulates that: "The United Nations shall place no restrictions on the eligibility of men and women to participate in any capacity and under conditions of equality in its principal and subsidiary organs." The Secretariat, of course, is one of those organs.

Towards this end, the principal goal is to raise the percentage of women at the Professional level and to seek women for posts at the higher Professional levels. In 1978 the General Assembly set a four-year goal to increase the proportion of women in Professional posts subject to geographical distribution to 25 per cent of all such posts. In 1982 the United Nations first woman Under-Secretary-General was named. In 1983, while the proportion of women in the General Service category was over 57 per cent, the percentage of women in Professional posts subject to geographical distribution was a little over 22 per cent, three points short of the target, though six points above the figure of a decade earlier.

Since women have traditionally had limited opportunities for training and experience in many occupations in their own countries, and since they are not being offered as candidates by Member States in nearly the same proportion as men, it will likely take some time before full numerical parity of the sexes is reached in the Secretariat.

What legal privileges do United Nations staff members have?

Under the Charter (Article 105, paragraph 2), the staff of the United Nations enjoy such privileges and immunities as are necessary for the independent exercise of their functions in connection with the Organization.

A Convention on the Privileges and Immunities of the United Nations was adopted in 1946 and has been accepted by most Member States. Under the Convention, the staff of the Organization normally have what is called "functional immunity" — that is, they are protected from legal action in any country with respect to the work they do on behalf of the United Nations. In addition, they have the right of access to offices of the United Nations and to reside in the countries in which those offices are situated. Staff members normally have no other privileges and are subject to all laws of the country of their residence, though in some countries normal diplomatic privileges, such as the tax-free importation of goods, are allowed as a courtesy. The Secretary-General and the highest level of the staff, however, enjoy the same privileges and immunities as diplomatic envoys. The Secretary-General has waived the privileges and immunities of United Nations staff members when he has deemed it necessary.

Do United Nations staff members pay taxes?

United Nations staff members do not get away without paying taxes. They are subjected to a "staff assessment" which the Organization deducts from their salary. This is based on the amount of taxes that a United States citizen would pay to the Federal Government.

The money the United Nations collects in this way is credited to Member States in proportion to their assessed contribution to the regular budget. The United States, as the principal exception to this arrangement, does not receive this reimbursement because United States citizens working for the Secretariat must pay the same income taxes to their local, state and federal governments that all other United States citizens are required to pay. This is so because the United States, along with a few other nations, has not agreed to waive taxation on United Nations income earned by its citizens. Such persons must therefore pay income taxes, but they are then reimbursed by the United Nations out of the staff assessment.

This complicated system was devised to equalize the net pay of all staff members, whatever their national tax obligations. It also avoids the problem of having to decide whether staff members should pay taxes to their home country or to the country where they work. And it ensures that one country, through its United Nations contributions, will not in effect be paying taxes to another.

United Nations staff members have no "tax breaks" or shelters. Thus, if they incur expenditures which would be tax deductible in many countries — such as home mortgage interest or losses from a fire — they are not entitled to any reduction of their staff assessment.

These arrangements apply only to income taxes. United Nations employees, except a handful at the top levels, pay the same sales, real estate and other taxes as anyone else.

Are United Nations employees overpaid?

To ask the question is to invite another: compared to whom? For it is just this comparison that matters to the International Civil Service Commission (ICSC), which recommends salary scales, and to the General Assembly, which approves them and votes the money.

United Nations salaries are not set in a vacuum. In fact, the General Assembly has been quite specific on this point, decreeing that the salary levels which would enable recruitment of staff from all countries, including the country with the highest pay levels, should be used for the comparison. For the past 30 years, the United States Civil Service has provided this point of reference.

Why should the best-paid national service be the hallmark? Would it not be more appropriate to choose one midway along the scale? Well, the hitch is this: if the nationals of some countries could receive higher pay working for their own Governments, what incentive would they have for United Nations service? Would the world Organization be able to choose only from among those who can't land a job with their own Government?

Obviously, it would violate the principle of equal pay for equal work if the United Nations had to pay higher salaries only to those whose home Governments paid well.

Actually, the United Nations has been casting about for years to see if it could get around this link with the best-paid civil service, but it has not found a better basis for comparison. The link was first accepted by the League of Nations back in the 1920s, when it was known as the Noblemaire principle, after the Frenchman who first expounded it, and no better alternative has been discovered since. The fact is that the United Nations, like any other employer, must compete in the open market for its personnel.

Ever since 1975, salaries and fringe benefits have been the concern of ICSC, a body of 15 experts appointed by the General Assembly and responsible only to it. In undertaking the salary comparison with the United States Civil Service, the Commission sent a team of personnel experts to Washington, D.C., a few years ago to make sure that apples were not being stacked up with oranges — that the jobs used for the comparison in the two civil services involve the same level of responsibility. This team worked closely with the United States Civil Service Commission in the study, which is still continuing. Meanwhile, the salary levels of the two services are monitored closely every year to see that one does not depart drastically from the other.

But is it not true that United Nations employees make more than their United States Civil Service counterparts — 16 per cent more on the average? Yes. But there are good reason for this differential.

First, about 86 per cent of United Nations Professional staff work outside their own countries, and have to incur extra expenses as a result. This factor is recognized by all government foreign services, which pay their personnel abroad up to twice as much as they receive when stationed in their home country. Also, other factors, such as short career spans and limited prospects of reaching the highest levels, must also be taken into account.

Second, living costs are higher in New York, where United Nations Headquarters is located, than in Washington — over 7 per cent higher in June 1983, when the last comparison was made.

Thus, after adjusting for the cost-of-living difference between New York and Washington, United Nations salaries for Professionals averaged 16.5 per cent higher than those paid by the United States Civil Service. Total compensation — salaries, pensions, insurance and other monetary benefits — show a lower margin (approximately 11.6 per cent) for United Nations Professionals than for United States Civil Service employees.

To talk in actual dollar figures for a moment: The most populous grade in the Professional category of the Secretariat is designated P-4. It is at the mid-point of the category and is held by many occupational groups from economists to lawyers. For the period 1 October 1982 to 30 September 1983, it paid $39.979 net a year (equivalent to salary after taxes). The comparable job in the United States Civil Service, level GS/14, paid $32.677 in Washington. (Both salaries are for the lowest step in the grade.)

Far from overpaying its personnel, the United Nations often has difficulty finding people, especially from some industralized countries, who will work for the salaries it pays.

The above comparisons apply to the Professional staff of the United Nations, who are internationally recruited and liable to service anywhere in the world. The General Service staff (largely clerical and secretarial), who as a rule are locally recruited for local service, are paid different salaries in each city where the Organization has an office, to reflect the best prevailing rates in that locality. Again, the aim is to attract qualified workers. During the past few years, ICSC has begun detailed comparisons between United Nations salaries in General Service jobs and the salaries paid by outside employers in the same cities, to make sure that they are comparable.

One more detail: To ensure equity in the face of different living costs at different times and places — and to permit staff to be transferred from one country to another without financial loss or gain -- the United Nations has a "post adjustment" system which raises or lowers salaries according to the cost of living and exchange-rate fluctuations. This is to ensure that staff members doing the same work have as nearly as possible the same purchasing power wherever they are stationed, and that they are reasonably protected, like national civil servants, from the varying rates of inflation in different countries.

The violent fluctuations of currency exchange rates in recent years, especially of the United States dollar, have placed severe strains on the post adjustment system. Nevertheless, many national foreign services which copy it for paying their own staff recognize it as reasonably effective.

How "permanent" are United Nations employees?

To protect security of tenure, the United Nations has a system of "permanent" contracts which ensure that the staff members holding them will be able to keep their jobs as long as they maintain adequate standards. This practice, common to most bureaucracies, has its advantages and disadvantages. On the positive side, it allows for continuity in the staff, rewards experience and is a barrier to political influences that would undermine the international civil service. On the negative side, it tends to shield the less proficient, place longevity above ingenuity, and discourage an influx of "fresh blood".

The pros and cons of permanent contracts are debated in the General Assembly every year. On the one hand, it is argued that there can be no true international civil service unless its members can be sure of their independence from changing political winds. There is no substitute for experience, advocates of this point of view stress. The Secretariat can only benefit from a nucleus of devoted persons who are willing to dedicate their lives to the international civil service. Moreover, many persons holding permanent contracts came to the United Nations at their own initiative and have no careers to return to outside the world Organization.

On the other hand, it is pointed out that too high a proportion of permanent contracts can prevent the Secretariat from reflecting the changing membership of the United Nations. In particular, those who favour "fixed-term" contracts of specified duration — usually about five years — argue that they not only bring in new and often youthful talent but they also expose the nationals of many developing countries to an international experience that can stand them in good stead when they return to their own countries. It is pointed out as well that many nations with a shortage of trained personnel can ill afford to give such persons up to a lifetime away from their homeland.

The solution which Secretariat administrators have sought is to maintain a fair ratio between permanent and fixed-term contracts, though Member States differ markedly in their idea of what this ratio should be. On 30 June 1983, fixed-term appointments made up 40.6 per cent of the Professional staff in United Nations posts subject to geographical distribution. But the proportion varied considerably by region from 25.3 per cent in the case of nationals from North America and the Caribbean to 96.6 per cent of the Eastern Europeans on the staff. The proportion also differs from agency to agency: the United Nations has a higher ratio of permanent staff than many of the agencies in the system.

Is there a morale problem among United Nations staff?

Because they come from so many different national backgrounds, United Nations workers face special human problems as they carry out their varied tasks. The 86 per cent of staff members who live and work away from their home country must accommodate themselves to customs that are often unfamiliar and even bewildering. Most of them work in large cities — New York, is the most familiar example, where even the long-time residents sometimes have difficulty in coping with life's daily problems.

Aside from these outside difficulties, the United Nations staff member confronts situations unique to his or her work environment. Getting along with colleagues is usually no chore, since the multinational corps of civil servants are generally adaptable in their interpersonal relations. But from their diverse cultural origins they bring distinctly different concepts of public administration and management — and herein lies a source of potential trouble in a world Organization with a multitude of goals and functions. These problems are not unique to an international Secretariat, but it is easy to see how they can be exacerbated in such a setting.

There are less tangible aspects as well, particularly for those staff members whose idealism attracted them to the United Nations. They often have to deal with the contrast they see between the high ideals of the Charter and the reality of compromise and consultation. They are confronted with tasks that cannot be solved with the resources given to them or the Organization. They seek solutions for problems over which the Secretariat has no control. They often encounter public misunderstanding about what the United Nations is trying to accomplish.

Given such constraints, job satisfaction has had to be gained from a sense of accomplishment of individual tasks. Sacrifices have been made in the hope that the stimulation of the work will eventually compensate.

However, in 1982, some 1,500 of the United Nations Headquarters employees in New York engaged in a series of "job actions" over 14 stated grievances, ranging from money to displeasure over the administration's inability to prevent staff members from being imprisoned by their Government. In December of that year, the Assembly welcomed measures approved by the Secretary-General "to enhance the safety and protection of international civil servants". He was credited with obtaining the release of a number of staff members of the United Nations Relief and Works Agency held within Lebanon in 1982, and with maintaining pressure in the cases of more than a dozen United Nations workers listed as missing, slain or jailed in several countries.

The administration has taken a number of other steps to improve staff-management relations, for example by carefully reviewing job classifications and announcing a new "career development" programme.

Is the United Nations doing its job?

It is. There is no question that it has its problems and its difficulties, but with all of them there is ample proof that the world needs the United Nations. As the answers to the preceding questions have tried to point out, over and over again in the past 38 years the United Nations has shown it can do things no other organization can do, or has ever been able to do before.

Even if at times the nations of the world are reluctant to follow its decisions, they still turn to the United Nations as their safety valve to defuse what could otherwise become major conflagrations. They turn to it for peace-keeping. They turn to it with delicate human rights problems. They turn to it with problems of refugees made homeless because of natural disasters or political persecution. They turn to it to help co-ordinate safety in the air. They turn to it to help find cures for ills that have plagued humanity over the centuries. They turn to it to save the lives of and assure a better future for their children.

That, in sum, is the central message of this booklet: that while the general public must be realistic in recognizing the difficulties and problems confronting the United Nations, it should also know what the United Nations can do in fulfilling the responsibilities set out in the Charter — if its Member Governments use it properly.

The United Nations system has thousands of people all over the world engaged in virtually every area of human endeavour. It has more than 9,000 soldiers from 23 nations serving in five separate peace-keeping operations. The importance of these active representatives of the United Nations is not only in the tasks they perform or in their numbers, but in the idea of service to the world community which they symbolize. They are the forerunners, the pioneers of the world order which must evolve if we are to move forward to a global society worthy of the great aspirations of humanity.

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UNITED NATIONS AND NAMIBIA

Dear Student,

Respect for equal rights and self-determination of peoples is one of the fundamental principles enshrined in the Charter of the United Nations. This principle was reaffirmed and further elaborated in the historic Declaration on the Granting of Independence to Colonial Countries and Peoples, adopted by the General Assembly more than two decades ago. In proclaiming this right, the United Nations has given expression to the aspirations of the peoples of the world to equality and freedom.

In the past four decades, the world has witnessed more than a billion people attain freedom and, as a consequence, well over one hundred countries have joined the community of independent nations. The United Nations has played a unique role in this historic process, which has swept away most of the former colonies in Africa, Asia and Latin America.

Despite the progress made so far in the process of decolonization, there are still crucial and highly pressing issues to be resolved. Among these, the question of Namibia remains one of the foremost concerns of the international community and constitutes a very special responsibility of the United Nations. There is no doubt that the solution of this long-standing bilateral issue between the United Nations and South Africa will have a beneficial effect on the southern African region as a whole.

Over a span of almost four decades, the United Nations has steadfastly supported the inalienable right of the people of Namibia to self-determination and independence in a free and united Namibia. These efforts culminated in the adoption of Security Council resolution 435 (1978), which established the modalities by which the people of Namibia would be able to determine their future through free and fair elections under the supervision and control of the United Nations.

It is indeed regrettable that, notwithstanding all the progress made in the negotiations thus far, we have not yet been able to proceed to the implementation of the United Nations plan because of South Africa's insistence on raising, as preconditions for the implementation of the plan, issues outside its scope. The continued delay in the implementation of Security Council resolution 435 (1978) can only prolong the agony and travail of the Namibian people, cause more bloodshed and imperil the peace and development of the other countries in the region.

Urgent efforts must now be made by the international community to bring about a final settlement so that we can proceed expeditiously with the implementation of Security Council resolution 435 (1978). International opinion in support of the legitimate aspirations of the people of Namibia for genuine self-determination and independence can have a most positive impact in this regard. And you, as students, can help to mobilize support for the endeavours of the international community to bring freedom and justice to the people of Namibia.

Javier Pérez de Cuéllar
Secretary-General of the United Nations

United Nations and NAMIBIA

To the Student

Introduction

Namibia lies along the Atlantic coast of the south-western part of Africa and is bounded on the north by Angola, on the northeast by Zambia, on the east by Botswana and on the south by South Africa.

It is a vast semi-arid land mass of 318,261 square miles (824,269 square kilometres), the size of France and the United Kingdom put together. The principal features of the Territory are extensive desert areas and low overall rainfall. It can be divided into three regions:

1. The Namib, an arid and desolate region, is a coastal belt from 40 to 80 miles wide;
2. The central plateau covers slightly more than half of the territory's land area;
3. The Kalahari, composed of plains covered with sand dunes and with virtually no surface water, is in the northern and eastern parts of the country. Average rainfall is between 200 and 400 mm. annually.

Despite the enormous size of the Territory, its population density is one of the lowest in Africa. Figures are difficult to confirm as there is considerable dispute about estimates and projections of Namibia's population. The Office of the United Nations Commissioner for Namibia estimated the population of Namibia at 1.5 million in 1978.

Namibia is extremely rich in natural resources. It is the largest source of gems and diamonds and has one of the biggest deposits of uranium—a strategic mineral crucial to the development of nuclear power—in the world. Other valuable resources which are found in Namibia are copper, lead, tin, zinc and manganese, many of which are of strategic importance. Offshore oil prospecting is being carried out with the hope of significant finds. Natural gas, which may be used as a motor fuel, has been discovered off the coast.

Commercial farming, in the hands of white farmers, is mostly confined to the central plateau region known as the "Hardred". Commercial agriculture, the second most lucrative sector, also controlled by the whites, is based on cattle and karakul sheep raising for export. Cultivation of food crops is minimal and basically limited to subsistence farming by Africans. The country has the richest inshore and deep-water fishing zones in tropical Africa. The main inshore fish are pilchard and anchovy; the principal deep-water fish is hake.

Commercial fishing was the third mainstay of the economy until the mid-1970s, when it virtually collapsed because prolonged indifference to marine ecology by South Africans and other interests had resulted in the exhaustion of resources. By 1982, the marine resources were reportedly renewing themselves, permitting further exploitation although on a vastly reduced scale.

Brief Historical Outline

Although Portuguese explorers first set foot on the shores of Namibia in 1484, the Territory was one of the last areas in Africa to be colonized. Early explorers and navigators arriving by sea were deterred from penetrating the interior of the Territory by the endless high sand-dunes along the coast; the few travellers of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries who entered the country overland were for the most part hunters, traders and missionaries who had no interest in staying there permanently. Only the harbour at Walvis Bay had been claimed by Britain in 1878 as an important provisioning point on the route to the Cape of Good Hope.

The indigenous population of the Territory consisted mainly of nomads, herdsmen and hunters who needed extensive pasturage and hunting areas. The Ovambos, the largest group, numbering from 100,000 to 150,000 at the end of the nineteenth century, lived in the northern part; the Herero, nomadic herdsmen estimated to number about 80,000, in the central part; and the Nama in the south. A number of smaller tribes were scattered over the area.

The first colonial Power to occupy Namibia was Germany, which until late in the nineteenth century had acquired no African possessions. Germany established its rule by chicanery and force of arms beginning in 1884. By the time the fierce resistance of the Namibian people, culminating in the Herero and Nama rebellions of 1904 to 1907, was overcome, the Herero population was massacred and thus reduced from 80,000 to 15,000 and three quarters of the Nama tribe had been killed and their lands and cattle confiscated.

Namibia was the only possession which Germany regarded as suitable for white immigration. From the very beginning, therefore, it was German policy to encourage white settlement in the relatively rich lands extending through the centre and south of the Territory and to drive the Africans into the arid lands on its desert margins. Accordingly, the German occupiers divided the Territory into two parts divided by a so-called Red Line: the northern sector, comprising less than one third of the total area, where most Africans were confined, and the so-called Police Zone, designated for European settlement, where the African population nonetheless outnumbered the whites. Reserves amounting to only 15 per cent of the total area were established in the Police Zone for the Damara, Herero and Nama groups as well as for the so-called Rehoboth Basters (persons of mixed descent).

In 1920, following Germany's defeat in the First World War, the League of Nations established a Mandate authorizing South Africa, which had occupied Namibia during the war, to administer the Territory on behalf of His Britannic Majesty. It might have seemed to the Africans that the time had come for the recovery of their lands. But the South African takeover, if anything, made their situation even more difficult. Although Article 22 of the Covenant of the League of Nations provided that the "well-being and development" of the people formed "a sacred trust of civilization" and although, under the terms of the Mandate, the Mandatory Power was bound to promote to the utmost the material and moral well-being of the inhabitants, the South African Government did not return the lands to their original owners but, in fact, proceeded to allocate new farms to white settlers and retained the German division of the Territory into African and European sectors. Thus, the majority of Africans continued to find themselves restricted to barren and undeveloped reserves in the north which they were forbidden to leave unless they had permission to work as migrant labourers in the Police Zone, the only area of economic development. Most Africans residing in the Police Zone worked for whites as domestic farmers or hired hands. There, also, they were regulated by a system of labour and pass laws which established a firm pattern of inferiority and segregation.

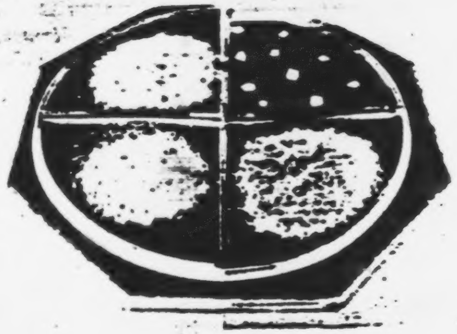
In 1925, in order to enable the white population of the Territory to manage its own affairs, the Government of South Africa set up a legislative assembly with delegated powers from which Africans were completely excluded.

Following the Second World War the South African Government, which as of 1948 was controlled by the National Party, made a determined effort to annex the Territory. This attempt failed, largely due to the opposition of the United Nations. Nonetheless, South Africa proceeded to govern the Territory almost as a fifth province of the Republic. In 1951, the Territory's white population was even given representation in the all-white South African Parliament and was allowed virtual autonomy in running the area within the Police Zone. Furthermore, effective 1 April 1955, the South African Government took direct control, through its Department of Bantu Administration and Development, of the administration of "native" affairs and introduced even more rigid practices of *apartheid* than had previously been applied in the Territory. In subsequent developments, the Government of South Africa established the post of an Administrator-General for the Territory in 1977 with responsibility for most of the functions previously falling under the direct control of the Government in South Africa.

United Nations Council for Namibia

The United Nations Council for Namibia was established by the General Assembly in 1967 pursuant to resolution 2248(S-V) as the only legal authority to administer the Territory of South West Africa/Namibia until independence.

The United Nations Council for Namibia, originally composed of 11 members, was enlarged to 31 members in 1978. The mem-



bers of the Council are: Algeria, Angola, Australia, Bangladesh, Belgium, Botswana, Bulgaria, Burundi, Chile, China, Colombia, Cyprus, Egypt, Finland, Guyana, Haiti, India, Indonesia, Liberia, Mexico, Nigeria, Pakistan, Poland, Romania, Senegal, Turkey, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, United Republic of Cameroon, Venezuela, Yugoslavia and Zambia. In addition to the above membership, the South West Africa People's Organization (SWAPO) participates in the work of the Council, and the Organization of African Unity (OAU) maintains observer status in the Council.

Since its establishment in 1967, the United Nations Council for Namibia, as the legal Administering Authority for Namibia, has carried out the following activities:

—exposing the illegal presence and repressive policies and practices of the South African régime;

—assisting the Namibian people in their struggle for independence under the leadership of SWAPO, their sole and authentic representative, by financing education and training programmes, providing travel and identity documents and ensuring the participation of SWAPO in the work of the Council and the United Nations;

—taking action to ensure compliance of Member States with the United Nations resolution on Namibia and with the advisory opinion of the International Court of Justice;

—exposing the activities of foreign economic interests in Namibia by showing how these activities support the illegal occupation of Namibia by South Africa;

—consulting with Governments of Member States to determine ways of increasing pressure for a South African withdrawal;

—representing the interests of the Namibian people in international organizations and conferences;

—protecting Namibia's territorial integrity;

—enacting any laws or decrees to protect Namibia's interests;

—mobilizing and promoting international support for the liberation of Namibia under the leadership of SWAPO through effective publicity campaigns;

To undertake its activities, the United Nations Council for Namibia meets regularly at United Nations Headquarters in New York and holds extraordinary plenary sessions outside UN Headquarters in order to carry out extensive consultation with the front-line States and other countries. The Council also sends its members on missions to Africa, Asia, Europe and Latin America in order to mobilize support for the Namibian struggle.

United Nations Commissioner for Namibia

The General Assembly decided in 1967, pursuant to resolution 2248(S-V), to establish the post of the United Nations Commissioner for Namibia, to whom the Council would entrust such executive and administrative tasks as it deemed necessary. The Commissioner is responsible to the Council in the performance of his duties. He is appointed annually by the General Assembly and maintains regional offices in Zambia, Botswana and Luanda in order to facilitate liaison with Namibians.

The Office of the Commissioner for Namibia, as the executive body of the Council, co-ordinates the activities of the Nationhood Programme for Namibia, provides the administrative functions related to the General Account of the Fund for Namibia, and provides education, training and humanitarian assistance to Namibians. It also supports the activities of the United Nations Institute for Namibia, mobilizes and disseminates information on the Namibian struggle, issues United Nations Council for Namibia travel documents to Namibians and carries out research and legal studies on topics relating to the situation in Namibia.

United Nations Institute for Namibia

The United Nations Institute for Namibia was established by the United Nations Council for Namibia on Namibia Day, 26 August 1976, in Lusaka, Zambia, to enable Namibians to undertake training, research, planning and related activities with special emphasis on the struggle for national independence and the establishment of an independent, united Namibia.

The Institute is the result of the efforts of the international community, for the first time in the history of decolonization, to provide a Non-Self-Governing Territory with the opportunity to prepare the infrastructure and administration it will require at independence.

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It is first and foremost a Namibian institute administered to benefit the Namibian people and to further their interests.

The role of the Institute in the struggle for liberation of the Namibian people is particularly crucial when seen against the racial policies of South Africa which have kept Namibians educationally deprived.

The Institute offers a three-year programme in development studies and management. The curriculum includes constitutional and legal affairs; historical, political and cultural affairs; economics; agricultural and land resources; social affairs, education and information. Graduates of the Institute receive a diploma underwritten by the University of Zambia.

In addition, the Institute functions as an information and documentation centre on Namibia. The Institute undertakes applied research and publishes studies on various questions concerning Namibia and the struggle for liberation of the Namibian people. The Institute also prepares and compiles documentation to be used as a basis for policy formulation by the future government of an independent Namibia.

Periodically the Institute organizes training workshops and seminars for the purpose of providing Namibian students with the opportunity for in-depth analysis of specific topics and developing concrete problem-solving skills.

Under the supervision of the Institute, graduates pursue further training at universities or gain experience through internship programmes at various ministries in African countries.

SWAPO

The South West Africa People's Organization (SWAPO) was established as a national liberation movement on 19 April 1960 by the Namibian people "in response to their need for an organizational framework through which the masses could articulate their problems and aspirations and weather the storm of *apartheid* repression".

With provisional headquarters in Luanda, Angola, and offices in several other countries, SWAPO's stated objective is to liberate the Namibian people from colonial oppression and exploitation in all its forms. At a meeting of its Central Committee in Lusaka (1976), it adopted a Constitution, as well as a Political Programme, in which it aims "(a) to liberate and win independence for the people of Namibia, by all possible means, and to establish a democratic Government based on the will and participation of all the Namibian people; (b) to realize genuine and total independence of Namibia in the spheres of politics, economy, defence, social and cultural affairs".

SWAPO has always expressed its readiness to have the Namibian issue settled through negotiations, but in 1966, in response to measures of repression designed to thwart the growth of the movement, it felt the need to formally establish a military wing—the People's Liberation Army of Namibia (PLAN). Since its formation, PLAN has been waging an armed liberation struggle against South Africa.

SWAPO is active both internally and externally. While it has never been officially banned in Namibia by the South African Government, the organization's supporters have been the subjects of arrests and repression, making open political activity impossible. The movement was declared the sole and authentic representative of the people of Namibia by the General Assembly in its resolution 31/146 (1976) and was "invited to participate in the sessions and the work of all international conferences convened under the auspices of the General Assembly in the capacity of Observer (GA resolution 31/152)".

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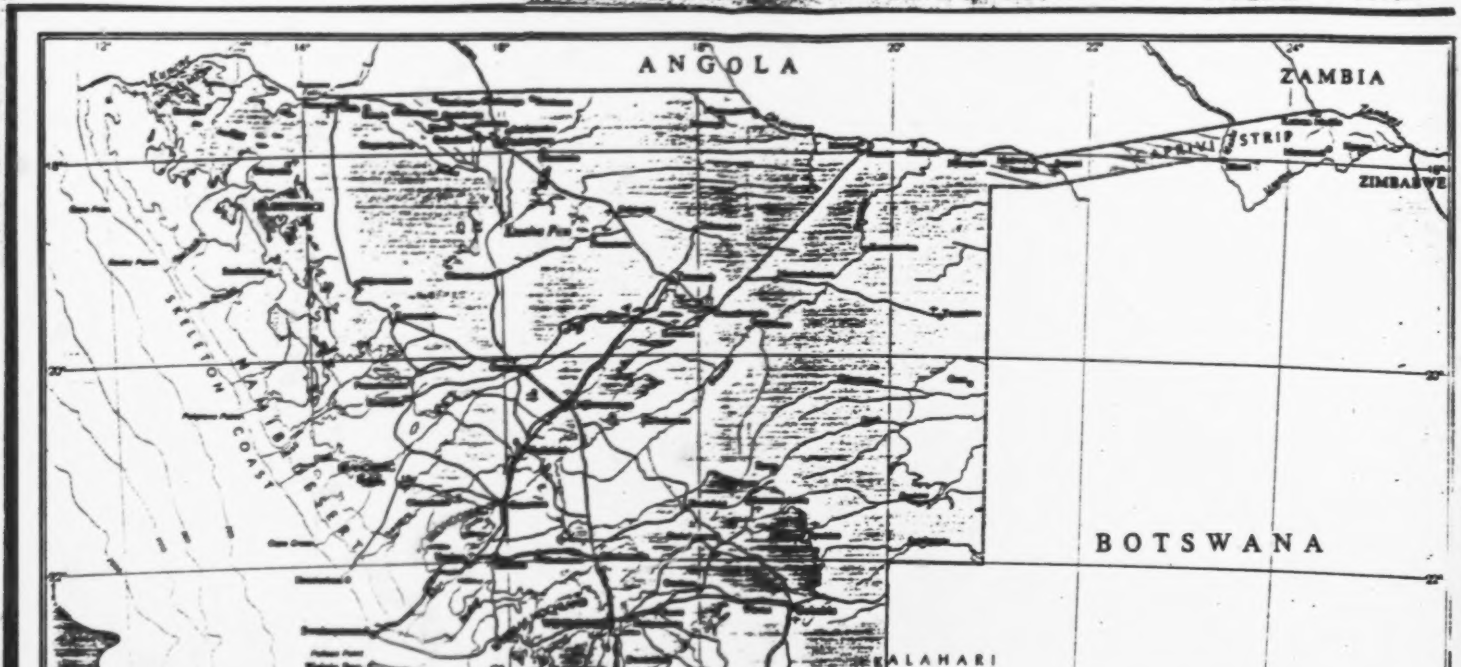


United Nations and NAMIBIA

To the Teacher

Most teachers wish to develop effective topics and techniques for teaching about world changes and the work of the United Nations. This leaflet, intended for use in secondary schools and universities, should help you to deal with one of the United Nations' priority concerns: the independence of Namibia. These teaching suggestions explore clear and simple ways to present this complex topic. Also discussed are approaches and methods to make the Namibia situation immediate and relevant to the student's own concerns.

The emphasis throughout is on positive action: the previous accomplishments of the UN in the field of decolonization and the steps taken to bring Namibia to nationhood.

We hope that these suggestions will stimulate your own ideas on ways to teach about this important United Nations work.

WHY Teach about Namibia: Rationale and Goals

The coming to independence of over 100 countries within 40 years is one of the greatest changes in human history.

In teaching about this problem, which so deeply concerns the international community, you will be able to develop several fundamental understandings about world developments and the work of the United Nations:

- the characteristics of the pre-World War II colonial world;
- the international community envisioned in the UN Charter;
- the transition towards such a community;
- Students will also be able to appreciate the difficulty in changing patterns of international behaviour used in the pre-1945 colonial world;
- the progress made in eliminating colonialism;
- the UN's role in the transition towards a community of independent nations.

WHAT: Focus and Themes

To present this complicated topic simply and clearly, you might begin by asking the class to identify basic themes in the information given in this leaflet (TO THE STUDENT).

You can then narrow your focus and explore at greater depth one or two topics of particular interest.

4. Implementation of the UN Charter: the importance of agreed standards of international behaviour; Member States' rights and responsibilities; what can be done when Charter provisions are infringed.

5. Increasingly close political and economic international relationships and their effect on the Namibian situation.

6. Why is Namibia's road to independence taking so long and proving so difficult?

7. Further options to hasten independence; the usefulness and/or potential hazards of each.

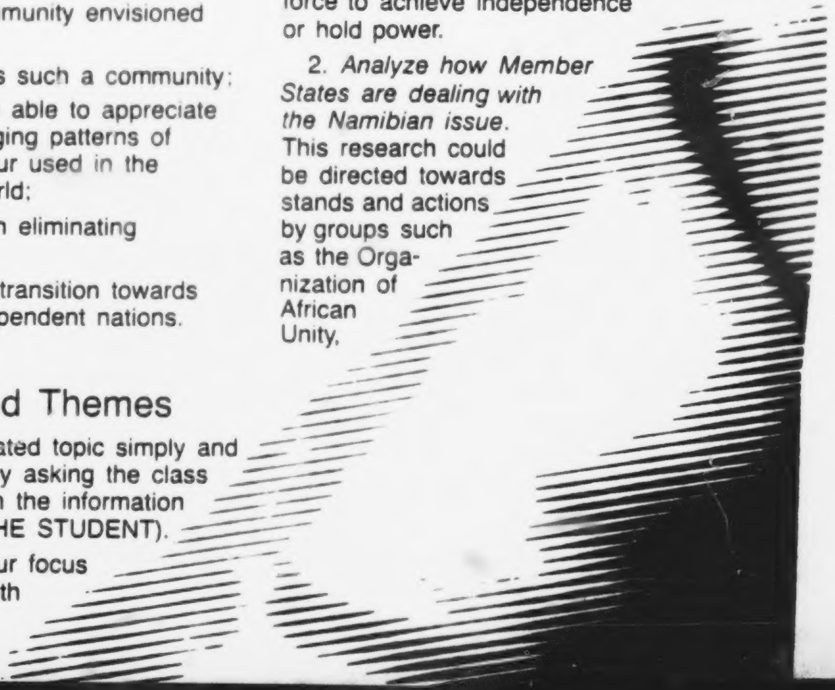
8. The role of the liberation movement. Comparison of the role of SWAPO with those of other liberation movements; peaceful options and armed struggle.

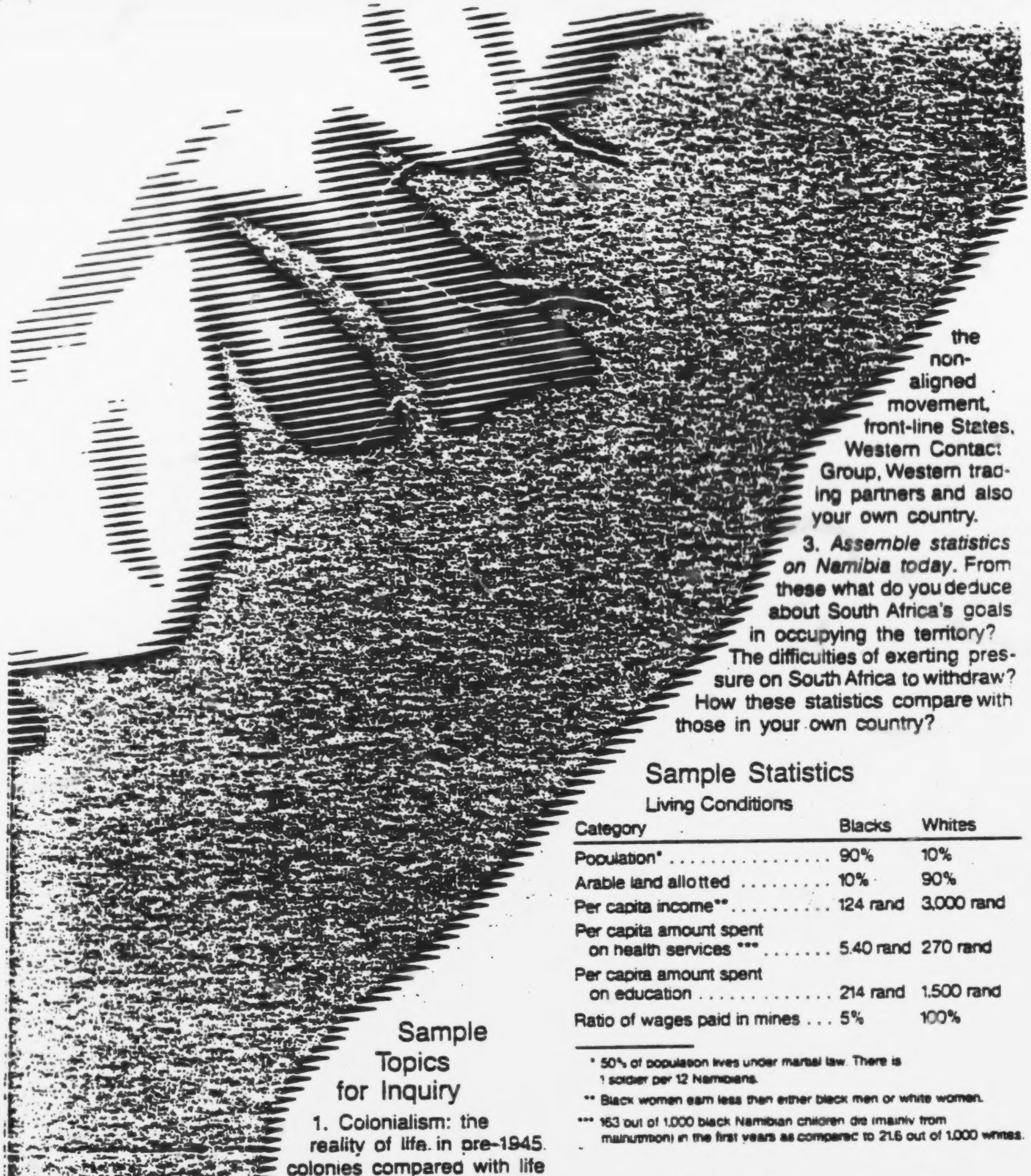
Sample Assignments

Assignments such as the following can help students to analyze basic issues raised by Namibia.

1. *Compare the coming-to-independence of Namibia to that of some other Trust or Non-Self-Governing Territory.* This analysis of the process of decolonization could include: the provisions of the UN Charter relating to self-determination; the Declaration on Decolonization; actions taken by indigenous inhabitants, former colonial or administering authorities and other countries; the role of the General Assembly, Security Council, Trusteeship Council, Special Committee on Decolonization, International Court of Justice and other United Nations bodies; and the use and non-use of military force to achieve independence or hold power.

2. *Analyze how Member States are dealing with the Namibian issue.* This research could be directed towards stands and actions by groups such as the Organization of African Unity,





the non-aligned movement, front-line States, Western Contact Group, Western trading partners and also your own country.

3. *Assemble statistics on Namibia today*. From these what do you deduce about South Africa's goals in occupying the territory? The difficulties of exerting pressure on South Africa to withdraw? How these statistics compare with those in your own country?

Sample Statistics

Living Conditions

Category	Blacks	Whites
Population*	90%	10%
Arable land allotted	10%	90%
Per capita income**	124 rand	3,000 rand
Per capita amount spent on health services ***	5.40 rand	270 rand
Per capita amount spent on education	214 rand	1,500 rand
Ratio of wages paid in mines	5%	100%

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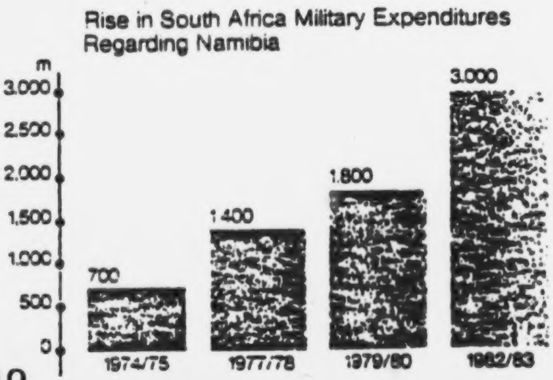
* 50% of population lives under martial law. There is 1 soldier per 12 Namibians.

** Black women earn less than either black men or white women.

*** 163 out of 1,000 black Namibian children die (mainly from malnutrition) in the first years as compared to 21.6 out of 1,000 whites.

Rise in South Africa Military Expenditures Regarding Namibia



Sample Topics for Inquiry

1. Colonialism: the reality of life in pre-1945 colonies compared with life in Namibia under colonialism the *apartheid* policy of rigid and racial segregation today.

2. The process of decolonization: the UN's role in decolonization in other African countries and in Namibia.

3. Ways in which the Namibian situation is unique: illegal occupation in violation of the UN Charter, international law and UN directives; the UN's special responsibility as sole administering authority; the role of the International Court of Justice.

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Foreign Economic Interests:

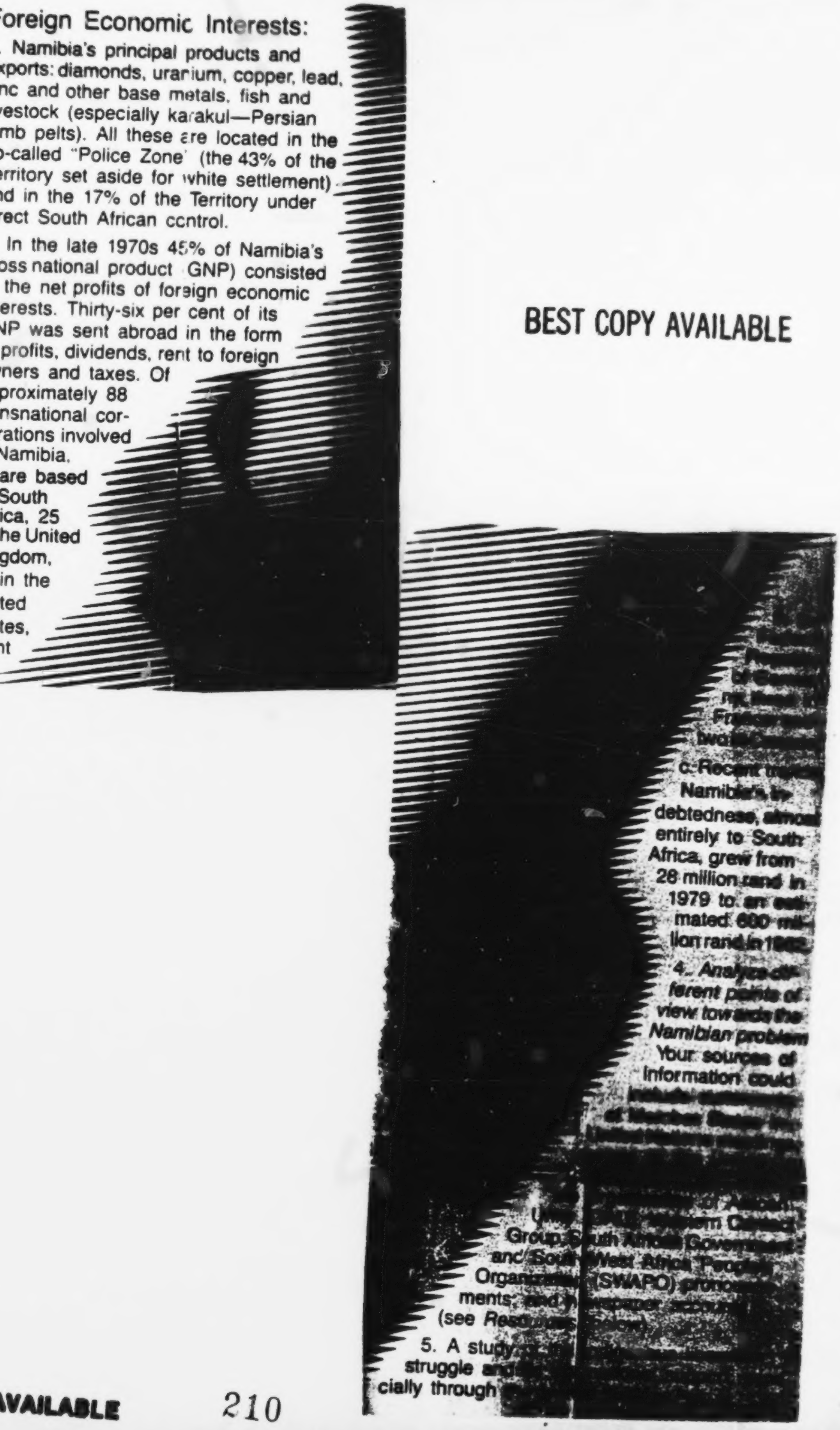
a. Namibia's principal products and exports: diamonds, uranium, copper, lead, zinc and other base metals, fish and livestock (especially karakul—Persian lamb pelts). All these are located in the so-called "Police Zone" (the 43% of the Territory set aside for white settlement) and in the 17% of the Territory under direct South African control.

b. In the late 1970s 45% of Namibia's gross national product (GNP) consisted of the net profits of foreign economic interests. Thirty-six per cent of its GNP was sent abroad in the form of profits, dividends, rent to foreign owners and taxes. Of approximately 88 transnational corporations involved in Namibia, 35 are based in South Africa, 25 in the United Kingdom, 15 in the United States, eight [illegible] of C[illegible] ng from [illegible] France [illegible] two [illegible]

c. Recent [illegible] Namibia's indebtedness, almost entirely to South Africa, grew from 28 million rand in 1979 to an estimated 600 million rand in 1982.

4. *Analyze different points of view towards the Namibian problem.* Your sources of information could include [illegible] of Member States [illegible] [illegible] of African Unity, [illegible] Western Contact Group, South African Government and South West Africa People's Organization (SWAPO) pronouncements; and newspaper accounts (see *Resources* below).

5. A study of [illegible] struggle and [illegible] cially through [illegible]



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HOW: Approaches and Methods

Many students find international affairs complicated, confusing and remote from their lives. They have the impression that not much can be done about world problems. An especially difficult issue like Namibia can compound these reactions.

To deal with these impressions about international affairs, adequate time must be given to clarifying the basic issues and exploring their implications. In addition, approaches and methods should involve students and help them to become aware of the progress being made towards resolving these questions.

Student Involvement

Students will become involved when they approach Namibia in human terms and feel empathy for people suffering injustice. Students could research case studies of life under *apartheid* and, if possible, talk to resource people from the area. The class might read reports of the liberation struggle given by exiled Namibians in the UN *Chronicle*.

Another way to involve students is to [illegible] Namibia to a comparable situation in the students' own experience. They might also devise and role-play a simplified version of what is happening in Namibia. For example, a member of a community organization has seized a neighbour's land, sold its resources and enslaved the inhabitants. Through these means, students would not only learn about the issues but would also undergo the feelings of those who are victimized.

Positive Approaches

It is not enough to [illegible] concerned about injustice; students should also know that something can be done to overcome [illegible]

Namibia should be viewed as one of the last unresolved problems remaining in the United Nations' 40 years of assisting territories to become self-governing. Some of these decolonization problems once seemed as intractable as Namibia. You can also emphasize the [illegible] endeavours [illegible] undertaken on the Namibians' behalf. Students could study such examples as the work of the United Nations Commissioner for Namibia, the missions of consultations of the United Nations Council for Namibia with

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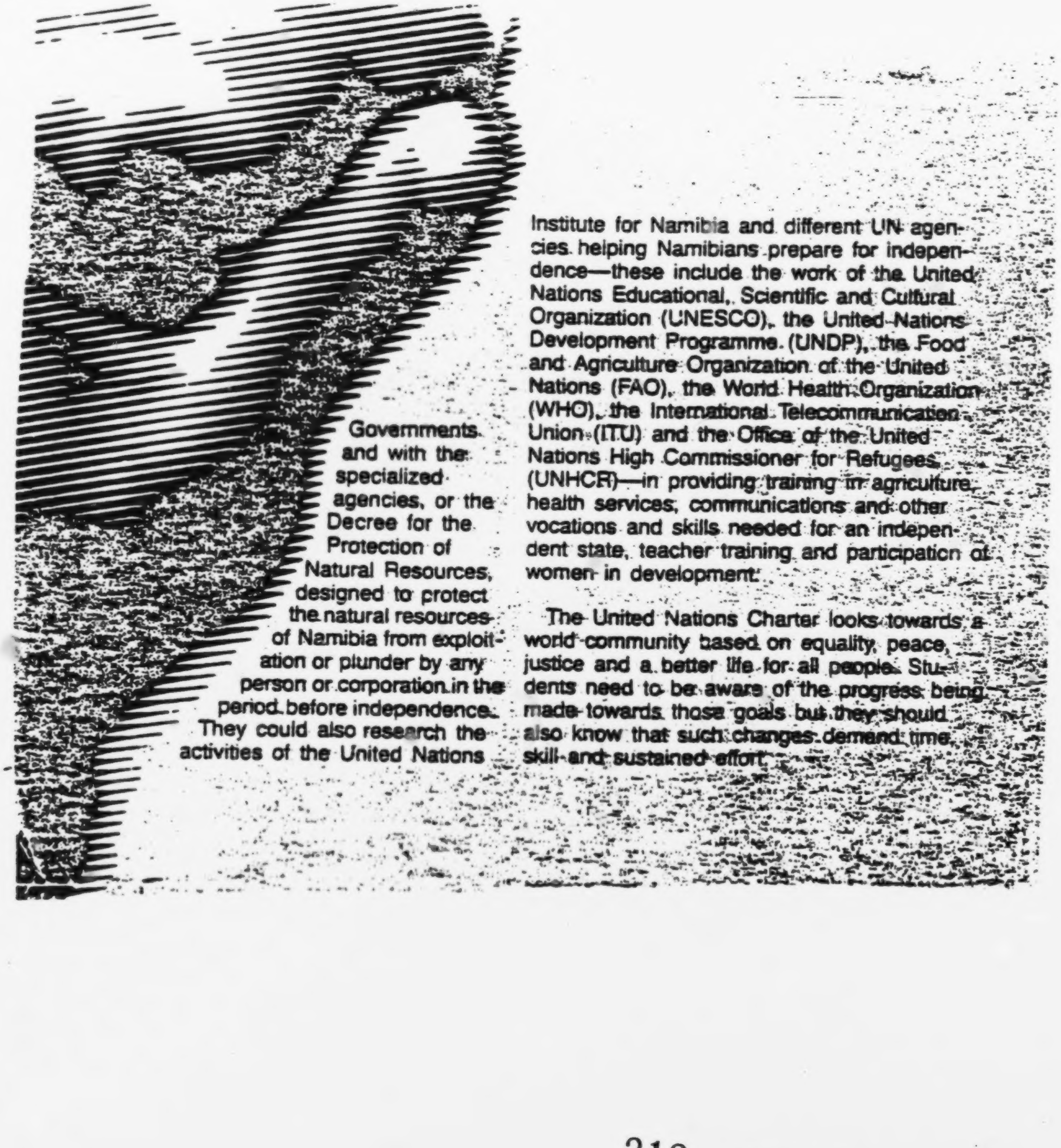

Governments and with the specialized agencies, or the Decree for the Protection of Natural Resources, designed to protect the natural resources of Namibia from exploitation or plunder by any person or corporation in the period before independence. They could also research the activities of the United Nations Institute for Namibia and different UN agencies helping Namibians prepare for independence—these include the work of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), the World Health Organization (WHO), the International Telecommunication Union (ITU) and the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)—in providing training in agriculture, health services, communications and other vocations and skills needed for an independent state, teacher training and participation of women in development.

The United Nations Charter looks towards a world community based on equality, peace, justice and a better life for all people. Students need to be aware of the progress being made towards those goals but they should also know that such changes demand time, skill and sustained effort.

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NAMIBIA: A Chronology

1884-
1915: South West Africa under German administration

1915: After outbreak of World War I, South African forces invade and occupy the Territory.

1920: League of Nations confers Mandate over South West Africa on "His Britannic Majesty, to be excercised on his behalf by the Union of South Africa".

1939: Demise of the League of Nations. Till this year South Africa submitted the required annual reports to the Permanent Mandates Commission, which was critical of South African policy on several occasions.

1945: Creation of the United Nations with International Trusteeship System for Territories held under League Mandates.

1946: General Assembly recommends Trusteeship status for South West Africa and invites South Africa to propose agreement.

1947: South Africa submits report on South West Africa for consideration by Trusteeship Council.

1949: South Africa informs the United Nations it will no longer transmit information on the Territory.

1950: International Court of Justice rules that South West Africa is still a Territory under international mandate for which South Africa continues to have international obligations.

1964: South Africa decides to implement policy of separate non-white "homelands" and exclusive white area.

1966: The United Nations terminates South Africa's mandate, assumes responsibility for administering South West Africa. A 14-member *Ad Hoc* Committee for South West Africa is established to recommend practical means for administering the Territory.

1967: Assembly sets up member United Nations Council for South West Africa to administer the Territory until independence.

1968: Assembly renames Territory Namibia and decides that the United Nations Council for South West Africa should be called the United Nations Council for Namibia and that the United Nations Commissioner for South West Africa should be renamed United Nations Commissioner for Namibia.

It also condemns States which, by their political, economic and military collaboration with South Africa, encourage its continued illegal occupation.

1969: The Security Council calls on South Africa to withdraw from Namibia, saying that its establishment of "bantustans" destroyed national unity and territorial integrity and that enactment of the "South West Africa Affairs Bill" violated Assembly resolutions. South Africa replies that it does not intend to leave the Territory. The Security Council calls on States to stop all dealings with the Government of South Africa purporting to act on behalf of the Namibian people.

1970: The Security Council calls on States to refrain from diplomatic and economic relations which imply recognition of South Africa's authority over Namibia. The Assembly calls on South Africa to treat captured Namibian freedom fighters as prisoners of war in accordance with the 1949 Geneva Conventions. A comprehensive assistance programme, the United Nations Fund for Namibia, is set up.

1971: The International Court of Justice rules that States Members are obliged to recognize the illegality of South Africa's presence in Namibia and refrain from assisting that régime. The Security Council and Assembly call on States to uphold that opinion.

1972: The Security Council invites the Secretary-General to initiate contacts with all parties concerned to hasten Namibia's move towards independence. Subsequently, the Secretary-General reports that many issues remain to be clarified, but South Africa is willing to consider removing restrictions on political activity and freedom of movement in the Territory. Security Council condemns repressive measures against African workers in Namibia, calling for the abolishment of any labour system which violates the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The Assembly again calls for economic sanctions against South Africa to ensure its immediate withdrawal from Namibia.

1973: The General Assembly recognizes the South West Africa People's Organization (SWAPO) as the authentic representative of the Namibian people. After repeated unsuccessful attempts by the Secretary-General to elicit a "complete and unequivocal clarification" of South Africa's policy regarding Namibian independence, the Security Council and the Assembly decide that contacts between the Secretary-General and the South African Government are detrimental to the interests of the Namibians and should cease.

Council for Namibia's Lusaka Declaration calls on all nations to actively support the Namibian independence struggle. "Namibia Day" (26 August) observed for the first time, commemorating the beginning, in 1966, of resistance to South African occupation.

1974: The Council for Namibia enacts *Decree for the Protection of the Natural Resources of Namibia*. The Assembly endorses the Namibia Council's decision to establish, at Lusaka, Zambia, a research and training institute to equip Namibians to assume positions of responsibility after independence. [The institute opened formally in 1976.]

1975: Security Council vetoes by France, the United Kingdom and the United States on proposed arms embargo on South Africa. The Assembly urges sanctions against South Africa for military build-up in Namibia; condemns its efforts to consolidate illegal occupation of Namibia by organizing a "constitutional convention" which would create divisions among ethnic groups and further its "bantustanization" policies.

1976: Security Council calls for free elections in Namibia under United Nations supervision, also condemns South Africa's aggression against Angola and Zambia, using Namibia to launch attacks. France, the United Kingdom and the United States again veto a proposal for an arms embargo against South Africa. The Assembly invites SWAPO to participate in its work as an Observer and decides that any independence talks on Namibia must be between representatives of South Africa and SWAPO, under United Nations auspices.

1977: The Security Council votes unanimously to impose a mandatory arms embargo against South Africa—the first time in the history of the United Nations such action has been taken against a Member State under Chapter VII of the Charter, concerning threats against peace and acts of aggression. Maputo Declaration by the International Conference in Support of the Peoples of Zimbabwe and Namibia calls on Governments to reject all attempts by South Africa to carve up the Territory of Namibia. The Council for Namibia and the Assembly condemn South Africa's annexation of Walvis Bay on 31 August as illegal. The Week of Solidarity with the People of Namibia and their Liberation Movement (27 September to 3 October) observed for the first time.

1978: Proposal for settling the Namibia question from five Western members (Canada, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, the United Kingdom and the United States) is accepted by South Africa and SWAPO and presented to the Security Council. The proposal calls for: appointment of a Special Representative to ensure establishment of conditions for free and fair elections; release of all Namibian political prisoners and return of all refugees; cessation of hostilities by all parties; and restriction to base of South African and SWAPO armed forces. Martti Ahtisaari, the United Nations Commissioner for Namibia, appointed Secretary-General's Special Representative, visits Territory from 6 to 22 August. The Security Council decides (resolution 435 (1978)) to establish a United Nations Transition Assistance Group (UNTAG) in Namibia, to assist in implementing the settlement plan.

Special session of General Assembly on Namibia (24 April to 3 May) fully supports Namibian people's armed liberation struggle under SWAPO.

When South Africa decides to hold unilateral elections in Namibia in December, the Security Council and General Assembly condemn the decision and declare the results null and void. The foreign ministers of the Western "Contact Group" declare that the unilateral elections by South Africa cannot be reconciled with the terms of the proposed settlement endorsed by the Security Council.

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1979: Year of Solidarity with the People of Namibia proclaimed by a decision of the Assembly, which says South Africa acted "deceitfully" in settlement talks on Namibia. South Africa is condemned for continued efforts to destroy SWAPO and impose an "internal settlement" through an illegal "national assembly".

1980: United Nations officials visit southern African States to discuss the proposed demilitarized zone. South Africa reaffirms acceptance of the settlement proposal but asks clarification of how UNTAG would function in the DMZ. Exploitation of the Territory's uranium by South Africa and other foreign interests denounced by the Namibia Council and the General Assembly in 1981. The "collusion" of France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Israel and the United States with South Africa in the nuclear field is condemned by the Assembly. The International Conference on Solidarity with the Struggle of the People of Namibia, held in Paris, calls for comprehensive sanctions against South Africa, including an oil embargo.

1981: SWAPO agrees to sign a cease-fire with South Africa and co-operate with UNTAG, but South Africa is not ready to agree. Sanctions against South Africa again vetoed in the Security Council by France, the United Kingdom and the United States. The OAU-sponsored International Conference on Sanctions against South Africa in Paris calls for further action to isolate South Africa.

Panama Declaration of Council for Namibia denounces efforts by South Africa and others to introduce issues other than decolonization into the question of Namibia. At its eighth emergency special session, the Assembly reaffirms the United Nations plan for the independence of Namibia as "the only basis for a peaceful settlement" and rejects "manoeuvres" by "certain members" of the Western Contact Group undermining consensus on the plan.

1982: A text of principles for the constituent assembly and constitution of an independent Namibia, submitted by the Western Contact Group, is accepted by "the parties concerned in the negotiations for the implementation of the proposal for a settlement of the Namibian situation in accordance with Security Council resolution 435 (1978)". The Assembly deplores continued military support of South Africa by some Western States and Israel and firmly rejects "persistent attempts" by the United States and South Africa to link Namibian independence to the withdrawal of Cuban forces from Angola.

Arusha Declaration of Council for Namibia condemns South Africa for militarization of Namibia, including forced conscription.

1983: International Conference in Support of the Struggle of the Namibian People for Independence (Paris, 25 to 29 April).

The Security Council decides 532 (1983) to mandate the Secretary-General to undertake consultations regarding the proposed cease-fire.

The Security Council 539 (1983) rejects linking Namibian independence to irrelevant and extraneous issues and calls on South Africa to co-operate with the Secretary-General to facilitate the implementation of the United Nations plan.

Resources

UN Chronicle, vol. XX, No. 3, No. 6 and No. 7, 1983.

Namibia: A Unique Responsibility, DPI/752, April 1983.

Objective Justice, vol. XV, No. 1, DPI/759, June 1983.

United Nations Teaching Guide on Decolonization, DPI/751, 1984.

World Concerns and the United Nations,
Model Teaching Units for Primary, Secondary and Teacher Education, DPI/746, Sales No. E.83.I.12.
Units II-E; III-D; IV-F, April 1983.

The Education Information Programmes, which are concerned with the development and promotion of education about the United Nations, are grateful to the Department of Political Affairs, Trusteeship and Decolonization for its assistance in the preparation of this leaflet. We welcome your suggestions and comments on teaching about the United Nations in your school.

Please write to: Education Information Programmes,
Department of Public Information,
United Nations, New York, NY 10017.

UNITED NATIONS RESOURCES

DISARMAMENT

Fact Sheet No. 29

United Nations Information Materials On Disarmament

including list of libraries and information centres receiving UN publications

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The *Disarmament Fact Sheets* series is published by the Department for Disarmament Affairs, at United Nations Headquarters in New York. It deals with selected questions of disarmament and arms limitation that are under active consideration or the subject of studies in United Nations bodies and other forums. *Disarmament Fact Sheets* are published in the official languages of the United Nations and intended for world-wide dissemination free of charge.

The reproduction of *Disarmament Fact Sheets* in other languages is encouraged provided that no changes are made in the contents and the Department for Disarmament Affairs at New York is advised by the reproducing organization and given credit as being the source of the material.

United Nations Information Materials on Disarmament

This fact sheet lists those United Nations publications and other information materials on disarmament which could prove useful to non-governmental organizations, research institutes and the general public in gaining a better understanding of the issues involved and their treatment in various forums.

The publications are generally available in the official languages of the United Nations: Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Russian and Spanish. A number of them are out of print. Nevertheless, they have been listed as they are available for consultation at the United Nations in New York and Geneva and in the research libraries and United Nations Information Centres located world-wide. A list of such libraries and Information Centres is included in this fact sheet.

Unless otherwise indicated, publications in print can be ordered through addresses given at the end.

Publications

The United Nations Disarmament Yearbook

This major annual review covers all the activities related to disarmament within the United Nations framework including discussions of comprehensive approaches, nuclear arms limitation negotiations, prohibition of chemical, biological and radiological weapons, the reduction of military budgets and the texts of General Assembly resolutions.

The series started with the 1976 edition.

Volume I	1976	Sales No. 77.IX.2*
Volume II	1977	78.IX.4
Volume III	1978	79.IX.2 (clothbound) 79.IX.3 (paperbound)
Volume IV	1979	80.IX.6 (clothbound) 80.IX.7 (paperbound)
Volume V	1980	81.IX.3 (clothbound) 81.IX.4 (paperbound)
Volume VI	1981	82.IX.6 (clothbound) 82.IX.7 (paperbound)

*** out of print**

The United Nations and Disarmament

The two volumes of this series contain a summary of the deliberations and negotiations on disarmament in the United Nations from 1945 to 1975. They carry texts of treaties and summaries of all major discussions and recommendations of the United Nations General Assembly during that period.

The United Nations and Disarmament 1945-1970	70.IX.1*
The United Nations and Disarmament 1970-1975	76.IX.1

Treaties

Status of Multilateral Arms Regulation and Disarmament Agreements	78.IX.2
Status of Multilateral Arms Regulation and Disarmament Agreements: second edition	83.IX.5

First issued as a special supplement to the United Nations Disarmament Yearbook, 1977, the publication contains complete texts of various multilateral disarmament treaties. Included also are the list of signatories and parties as of 21 March 1978. Subsequent signatures and ratifications have been reported in the Disarmament Yearbook each year.

The second edition includes the contents of the first volume updating it to 31 December 1982. It also contains texts of two additional treaties which were opened for signature in 1979 and 1980.

Disarmament:
A Periodic Review by the United Nations

Disarmament is now normally published three times a year and serves as a source of information on activities of the United Nations and the international community in the field of disarmament. It covers facts and developments, summaries of new proposals, articles, statements and communiqués on disarmament. Each issue is supplemented with an annotated bibliography and a chronicle of current events.

Volume I, No. 1	May 1978	78.IX.3
Volume I, No. 2	October 1978	78.IX.5
Volume II, No. 1	May 1979	79.IX.1
Volume II, No. 2	October 1979	80.IX.1
Volume III, No. 1	May 1980	80.IX.4
Volume III, No. 2	July 1980	80.IX.5
Volume III, No. 3	November 1980	81.IX.1
Volume IV, No. 1	May 1981	81.IX.5
Volume IV, No. 2	October 1981	81.IX.6
Volume V, No. 1	May 1982	82.IX.5
Volume V, No. 2	November 1982	83.IX.1
Volume VI, No. 1	Spring 1983	83.IX.6

Disarmament Studies and Reports

United Nations studies have two basic purposes. First, they provide information of a general nature to facilitate both understanding of the problems of the arms race and disarmament and, secondly, they support the negotiating process through the analysis of specific matters related to negotiations in progress. Most of the studies have been carried out by the Secretary-General with the assistance of consultants and experts. They are initially issued as United Nations documents and most are subsequently published.

Economic and social consequences of disarmament (1962)*	E/3593/Rev.1, 62.IX.1
Effects of the possible use of nuclear weapons and the security and economic implications for States of the acquisition and further development of these weapons (1967)*	A/6858, 68.IX.1
Chemical and bacteriological (biological) weapons and the effects of their possible use (1969)*	A/7575/Rev.1, 69.I.24
Economic and social consequences of the arms race and of military expenditures (1971)*	A/8469/Rev.1, 72.IX.16

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* out of print

* out of print

Disarmament and Development (1972)*	ST/ECA/174, 73.IX.1
Napalm and other incendiary weapons and all aspects of their possible use (1972)	A/8803/Rev.1, 73.I.3
Reduction of the military budgets of States permanent members of the Security Council by ten per cent and utilization of part of the funds thus saved to provide assistance to developing countries (1974)	A/9770/Rev.1, 75.I.10
Comprehensive study of the question of nuclear-weapon-free zones in all its aspects (1975)	A/10027/Add.1, 76.I.7
Reduction of military budgets, measurement and international reporting of military expenditures (1976)	A/31/222/Rev.1, 77.I.6
Reduction of military budgets (1977)	A/32/194/Add.1
Economic and social consequences of the arms race and of military expenditures (1977)	A/32/88/Rev.1, 78.IX.1
Study on the question of a comprehensive nuclear test ban (1980)	A/35/257
Comprehensive study on nuclear weapons (1980)	A/35/392, 81.I.11
Comprehensive report on South Africa's plan and capability in the nuclear field (1980)	A/35/402, 81.I.10
Study on all the aspects of regional disarmament (1980)	A/35/416, 81.IX.2
Report of the *Ad Hoc* Panel on Military Budgeting, Practical test of the proposed standard instrument for international reporting of military expenditures	A/35/479, 81.I.9
The technical, legal and financial implications of establishing an international satellite monitoring agency (1981)	A/AC.206/14, 83.IX.3
Study on the relationship between disarmament and development (1981)	A/36/356, 82.IX.1
Study on the institutional arrangements relating to the process of disarmament (1981)	A/36/392
Study on Israeli nuclear armament (1981)	A/36/431, 82.IX.2
Study on the organization and financing of a World Disarmament Campaign (1981)	A/36/458
Comprehensive study on confidence-building measures (1981)	A/36/474, 82.IX.3
Study on the relationship between disarmament and international security (1981)	A/36/597, 82.IX.4
Study of the Group of Experts to investigate reports of the alleged use of chemical weapons (1981)	A/36/613
Reduction of military budgets (1982)	A/S-12/7, 83.IX.4
Investigation into reports of the alleged use of chemical weapons (1982)	A/37/259
Economic and social consequences of the arms race and of military expenditures (1982)	A/37/386, 83.IX.2

*out of print

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Disarmament Fact Sheets

The Disarmament Fact Sheets, such as this one, deal with selected questions on disarmament and arms limitation that are under active consideration or are the subject of studies in United Nations bodies and other forums. They are mainly intended for wide distribution among non-governmental organizations and the general public.

Fact Sheet Packet

The packet contains a compilation of 13 Fact Sheets issued before 1980 on such subjects as the United Nations disarmament machinery, comprehensive programme of disarmament, nuclear test ban, chemical and bacteriological weapons and costs of the arms race.

Fact Sheets available individually

Fact Sheet No. 15: Summary of the study on South Africa's plan and capability in the nuclear field.

Fact Sheet No. 16: Summary of the study on Regional Disarmament.

Fact Sheet No. 17: Summary of the comprehensive study on nuclear weapons.

Fact Sheet No. 18: Disarmament Week

Fact Sheet No. 19: Summary of the new convention on inhumane weapons.
(DPI/698)

Fact Sheet No. 20: Summary of the study on confidence-building measures.
(DPI/700)

Fact Sheet No. 21: Summary of the study on the relationship between disarmament and development.
(DPI/701)

Fact Sheet No. 22: Summary of the study on the relationship between disarmament and international security.
(DPI/702)

Fact Sheet No. 23: Background on the second special session of the General Assembly on disarmament.
(DPI/703)

Fact Sheet No. 24: World Disarmament Campaign Disarmament Week (DPI/716)

Fact Sheet No. 25: Summary of the proposal for the establishment of an international satellite monitoring agency.
(DPI/717)

Fact Sheet No. 26: A review of the second special session of the General Assembly on disarmament.
(DPI/739)

Fact Sheet No. 27: Summary of the study on the economic and social consequences of the arms race.
(DPI/740)

Fact Sheet No. 28: World Disarmament Campaign. General framework and programme of activities for 1983.
(DPI/742)

Fact Sheet No. 29: United Nations information materials on disarmament.
(DPI/756)

Fact Sheet No. 30: United Nations programme of fellowships on disarmament.
(DPI/758)

Pamphlets

Treaty on the Non-Proliferation of Nuclear Weapons (OPI/372)*

Disarmament: The Need for Intensified Efforts—Background Papers: 1977 (OPI/584)*

Disarmament: Progress towards peace: 1974 (OPI/500)*

Economic and Social Consequences of the Arms Race and of Military Expenditures—Questions and Answers: 1977 (OPI/594)*

The Fires of War: Napalm and Other Incendiary Weapons: 1973 (Pamphlet) (OPI/488)*

Nuclear-Weapon-Free Zones: 1977 (OPI/585)

Sea-Bed—A Frontier of Disarmament: 1972 72.I.10*

United Nations General Assembly: A Guide to the Final Document of the Special Session on Disarmament: 1978 (Pamphlet) (OPI/619)

The United Nations and Outer Space: 1977 (OPI/583)*

Final Document of the first special session of the General Assembly devoted to disarmament: 1978 (DPI/679)

The United Nations Versus the Arms Race, 1980 (DOI/649)* (new edition under preparation)

The Arms Race or the Human Race? A Choice for Mankind (DPI/697)

Publications of United Nations Institute for Disarmament Research (UNIDIR)

Inquiries regarding these publications should be referred to United Nations Institute for Disarmament Research, Palais des Nations, CH-1211 Geneva 10, Switzerland.

Risks of Unintentional Nuclear War, by Daniel Frei and Christian Catrina	82.0.1
Repertory of Disarmament Research	82.0.2
Establishment of an Automated Data Base on Disarmament—Preliminary Study—October 1981	82.0.3
Research Papers No. 1: National Mechanisms and Institutions for Disarmament, by Volker Rittberger	82.0.4
Research Papers No. 3: Disarmament and Security, by Vojin Dimitrijevic	82.0.6

* out of print

Publications of United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)

Inquiries regarding these publications should be referred to UNIPUB, 1180 Avenue of the Americas, New York, N.Y. 10036 or UNESCO House 7, place de Fontenoy, 75007 Paris, France.

The UNESCO Courier: The Arms Race, April 1979

The UNESCO Courier: Disarmament Education, September 1980

The UNESCO Courier: Swords into Plowshares, March 1982

"Scientists, the Arms Race and Disarmament" (A UNESCO/Pugwash Symposium), 1982

"Obstacles to disarmament and ways of overcoming them", 1981

"Armaments, arms control and disarmament" (A UNESCO reader for disarmament education), 1981

UNESCO Yearbook on Peace and Conflict Studies, annual since 1980.

Impact of science on society, Vol. 31, No. 1, January-March 1981, Weapons from Science: Civilization's Pitfall

International Social Science Journal
Vol. XXVIII No. 2, 1976: "The infernal cycle of armament."

Vol. XXXV, No. 1, 1983: "The Burden of Militarization."

Bibliographies

Disarmament: A Selected Bibliography 1967-1972*
Disarmament: A Selected Bibliography 1973-1977 78.I.13
Disarmament: Progress towards peace 74.I.23

School Kit

Disarmament and the Child, an approach to peace education

Prepared by UNICEF, the school-kit includes notes for teachers or group leaders and suggestions for group activities, fact sheets, a background article on peace education and a reprint on the implications of basic services. Published in English and French. Available from UNICEF Office for Europe, Palais des Nations, 1211 Geneva 10, Switzerland.

Posters and calendar

Official poster of the second special session of the General Assembly on disarmament.

1984 calendar depicting various entries to the international disarmament poster competition organized by the United Nations.

Available from World Disarmament Campaign unit, Department for Disarmament Affairs, United Nations, New York, N.Y. 10017.

The Choice is Ours:
A peace education poster on the costs of the arms race.
The Choices for You and Our World:
A poster on the consequences of violent behaviour as against consequences of co-operative behaviour. $1.00. Both available from Information Division, UNICEF, United Nations, New York, N.Y. 10017 or UNICEF, Palais des Nations, CH-1211 Geneva 10, Switzerland.

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* out of print

Films and Video Tapes

Inquiries regarding United Nations films and video tapes should be addressed to Radio and Visual Services Division, Department of Public Information, Room 807, United Nations, New York, N.Y. 10017.

"Nuclear Countdown":
28 minutes, colour, 1978. The nuclear arms race, with its inherent threat of ultimate disaster, is the greatest peril the world faces today. The film traces the history and current status of the nuclear arms race, documents continuing international efforts at control and explains the dangers of both vertical and horizontal proliferation.

"Booom":
11 minutes, colour, 1979. Animated film without narration on the subject of Disarmament. It covers the history of aggression from the beginning to what could be the end, if we do not stop the global arms race. Co-produced with the Czech film-maker Bretislav Pojar, this film has won many awards including the "Special Jury Prize for Animation" in the short subject category at the 1979 Cannes Film Festival.

"No More Hiroshima":
5 minutes 15 seconds vignette in colour, 1970. Emphasizes that 30 years after the dawn of the nuclear age, nuclear disarmament remains the dominant issue of our world and was the theme of the Tenth Session of the UN General Assembly in 1978. The vignette includes scenes outside the meeting hall, when 500 Japanese present a petition signed by 20 million of their countrymen, a moving plea for "No More Hiroshima".

"The Big IF":
9 minutes, in colour, no narration, 1982. An animated film on the economic consequences of the arms race. The film poses the question: What would happen if, and that is THE BIG IF, we turned our tanks into tractors, our grenades into chicken and our uniforms into dresses and shoes?

"In the Minds of Men":
30 minutes, in colour, 1982. The film presents the horrors of war from the distant past to the technological present. A compilation of rarely viewed historical footage, graphically animated art work and highly evocative drawings by Hiroshima atom-bomb victims and an international group of children.

World Chronicle Series:

Nos. 79 and 100. Video, colour, 29 minutes, 1982 and 1983. Mr. Jan Martenson, Under-Secretary-General for Department for Disarmament Affairs interviewed by press correspondents.

"Disarmament and Development":

Video, colour, 17 minutes, 1982. In this programme of edited interviews with illustrative material, Professor Seymour Melman of Columbia University, Mrs. Inga Thorsson, former Under-Secretary of State for Disarmament of Sweden, and others discuss a UN study on the relationship between disarmament and development.

"Disarmament—Second Special Session
of the General Assembly":

Video, color, 5 minutes and 36 seconds, 1982. In a pictorial round-up of the Special Session many world leaders are seen arriving at the United Nations. Among those who address the General Assembly are President Ronald Reagan, Foreign Minister Andrei Gromyko, United Nations Secretary-General Pérez de Cuéllar and Assembly President Ismat Kittani. Petitions in favour of disarmament signed by 90 million people are presented to the Secretary-General and the round-up concludes with a peace march outside the United Nations.

List of Libraries and Information Centres Receiving United Nations Publications

Afghanistan

Kabul

Kabul University
Library
Kabul

United Nations Information Centre
Shah Mahmoud Ghazi Watt
Kabul

Algeria

Alger

Bibliothèque nationale d'Algérie
Alger

Centre d'information des Nations Unies
19, avenue Claude-Debussy
Alger

Argentina

Buenos Aires

Biblioteca del Congreso de la Nación
Buenos Aires

Centro de Documentación Internacional
Buenos Aires

Centro de Información de las
Naciones Unidas
Ugarteche 3069
1425 Buenos Aires

Córdoba

Universidad Nacional de Córdoba
Biblioteca Mayor
Córdoba

General Roca

Centro de Documentacion
Editorial Río Negro
General Roca 8332, Río Negro

Mar del Plata

Biblioteca
Municipalidad de Mar del Plata
Mar del Plata

Mendoza

Universidad Nacional de Cuyo
Biblioteca Central
Mendoza

Rosario

Biblioteca Argentina
"Dr. Juan Alvarez"
Rosario

Australia

Adelaide

The State Library of South Australia
Adelaide 5001

Brisbane

State Library of Queensland
Brisbane 4000

Canberra

Australian Parliamentary Library
Parliament House
Canberra 2600

National Library of Australia
Canberra 2600

Melbourne

State Library of Victoria
Melbourne 3000

Perth

State Reference Library
The Library Board of
Western Australia
Perth 6000

Sydney

The Library of New South Wales
Sydney 2000

United Nations Information Centre
77 King Street
Sydney, N.S.W. 2000

Austria

Wien

United Nations Information Service
Vienna International Centre
P.O. Box 500
A-1400 Vienna

Österreichische National bibliothek
A-1014 Wien

Bahrain

Manama

Bahrain Public Libraries
Manama

United Nations Information Centre
P.O. Box 26004
King Faisal Road, Gufool
Manama

Bangladesh

Dacca

United Nations Information Centre
G.P.O. Box 3658
House 12, Road 6
Dhamnondi Residential Agena
Dacca

Dhaka

Dhaka University Library
Dhaka 2

Barbados

Bridgetown

University of the West Indies
Cave Hill Campus
Bridgetown

Belgium

Bruxelles

Bibliothèque du Parlement
Palais de la Nation
Bruxelles

Bibliothèque Royale Albert 1er
1000 Bruxelles

United Nations Information Centre
and Liaison Office
108, rue d'Arlon
1040 Brussels

Leuven

Bibliotheekcentrale
Katholieki Universiteit Leuven
3000 Leuven

Louvain-la-Neuve

Université catholique de Louvain
Centre général d'information
3000 Louvain-la-Neuve

Benin

Cotonou

Bibliothèque universitaire
Université nationale du Bénin
Cotonou

Bhutan

Thimphu

Thimphu Public Library
Thimphu

Bolivia

La Paz

Centro de Información de las
Naciones Unidas
Avenida Arce No. 2529, 2° piso
La Paz

Sucre

Biblioteca Nacional de Bolivia
Sucre

Botswana

Gaborone

National Library of Botswana
Gaborone

Brazil

Brasília

Biblioteca da Câmara dos
Deputados
Palácio do Congresso Nacional
Brasília, D.F.

Porto Alegre

Biblioteca-Depositária das
Nações Unidas
Faculdade de Direito da
Universidade Federal do
Rio Grande do Sul
90000 Porto Alegre

Rio de Janeiro

Biblioteca Nacional do Rio
de Janeiro
Rio de Janeiro

Centro de Informações das
Nações Unidas
Rua Cruz Lima No. 19,
group 201, Flamengo
Rio de Janeiro 22230

Salvador

Fundação de Pesquisas-CPE
40000 Salvador, Bahia

São Paulo

Biblioteca Mario de Andrade
São Paulo

Bulgaria

Sofia

Sofiiski Universitet "Kliment Ohridsky"
Biblioteka
Sofia

Burma

Rangoon

National Library
Rangoon

United Nations Information Centre
28A, Manawhari Road
P.O. Box 230
Rangoon

Burundi

Bujumbura

Centre d'information des Nations Unies
Boîte postale 2160
Avenue de la Poste
7, place de l'Indépendance
Bujumbura

Byelorussian Soviet Socialist Republic

Minsk

Gosudarstvennaya Biblioteka BSSR imeni
V. I. Lenina
Minsk 30

Canada

Edmonton

University of Alberta
The Library
Edmonton T6G 2E1

Fredericton

University of New Brunswick
Harriet Irving Library
Fredericton E3B 5H5

Halifax

Dalhousie University Library
Halifax B3H 3J5

Kingston

Documents Library
Queen's University
Douglas Library
Kingston K7L 5C4

Montréal

McGill University Libraries
McLennan Library
Government Documents Department
Montreal H3A 2T5

Université de Montréal
Bibliothèque des sciences humaines et sociales
Périodiques
Montréal H3C 3T2

Ottawa

Bibliothèque Morisset
University of Ottawa
Institute for International Co-operation
Ottawa K1N 6N5

Québec

Université Laval
Bibliothèque
Québec G1K 7P4

Saskatoon

University of Saskatchewan
Murray Memorial Library
Saskatoon S7N 0W0

Toronto

Canadian Institute of
International Affairs
Toronto M5S 2V9

University of Toronto Library
Serials Department
Toronto M5S 1A5

Vancouver

University of British Columbia
The Library
Vancouver V6T 1W5

Winnipeg

Legislative Library
Winnipeg R3C 0V8

Chile

Santiago

Biblioteca del Congreso Nacional
Santiago

Biblioteca Nacional
Santiago

Servicios de Información
Comisión Económica para
América Latina
Edificio Naciones Unidas
Avenida Dag Hammarskjöld
Casilla 179-D
Santiago

China

Zhong-Qing

Zhong-Qing Library
Zhong-Qing

Beijing

National Library of Beijing
Beijing 7

Colombia

Bogotá

Biblioteca Nacional
Bogotá

Centro de Información de las
Naciones Unidas
Apartado Aéreo 6567
Calle 61, No. 13–23
Bogotá

Cali

Universidad del Valle
Departamento de Bibliotecas
Cali

Costa Rica

Heredia

Centro de Documentación "Luis y
Felipe Molina"
Escuela de Relaciones Internacionales
Universidad Nacional
Heredia

San José

Biblioteca Nacional "Manuel Obregón"
San José

Cuba

La Habana

Biblioteca Nacional "José Martí"
La Habana

Cyprus

Nicosia

Ministry of Education
Library
Nicosia

Czechoslovakia

Bratislava

Univerzitna Knižnica
885 17 Bratislava

Brno

Universitní Knihovna
601 87 Brno

Praha

Informační Ustredi Spojené Narody
110 00 Praha 1, Pranská 5

Knihovna Federálního Shromáždění
CSSR
110 02 Praha 1

Státní Knihovna CSR
110 01 Praha 1

Democratic Kampuchea

Phnom Penh

Bibliothèque nationale
Phnom Penh

Denmark

Århus

Statsbiblioteket
Universitetsparken
DK-8000 Århus C

København

Det Kongelige Bibliotek
DK-1219 København K

De Forenede Nationer Informationskontor for de nordisk lande
H. C. Andersens Boulevard 37
DK 1553 København V

Dominican Republic

Santo Domingo

Universidad Autónoma de Santo Domingo
Biblioteca Central
Santo Domingo

Ecuador

Quito

Biblioteca Nacional
Quito

Egypt

Alexandria

Faculté de droit d'Alexandrie
Université d'Alexandrie
Alexandria

Cairo

Dar el-Kutub
Cairo

United Nations Information Centre
Sh. Osoris
Tagher Building (Garden City)
Cairo

El Salvador

San Salvador

Biblioteca Nacional de El Salvador
San Salvador
DL–86 [Dec 1948]
Centro de Información de las Naciones Unidas
6a. – 10a. Calle Poniente 1833
y 35 Avenida Sur San Salvador

Ethiopia

Addis Ababa

Addis Ababa University Library
Addis Ababa

Information Service
Economic Commission for Africa
Africa Hall
Addis Ababa

Fiji

Suva

University of the South Pacific
Laucala Bay
Suva

Finland

Åbo

Åbo Akademi
Förenta Nationernas Deposatory
20500 Åbo 50

Helsinki

Eduskunnan Kirjasto
SF-00102 Helsinki 10

Tampere

Tampereen Yliopiston Kirjasto
SF-33101 Tampere 10

France

Aix-en-Provence

Bibliothèque interuniversitaire
d'Aix-Marseille
13626 Aix-en-Provence

Lyon

Bibliothèque interuniversitaire de Lyon
69363 Lyon Cedex 2

Nancy

Bibliothèque interuniversitaire de Nancy
Section centrale
54042 Nancy Cedex

Paris

Bibliothèque Cujas de droit et
sciences économiques
Service des publications internationales
75005 Paris

Bibliothèque de l'Assemblée nationale
Service de la documentation étrangère
Paris

Bibliothèque nationale
Service des publications officielles
75084 Paris Cedex 02

Centre d'information des Nations Unies
4 et 6, avenue de Saxe
75700 Paris

Fondation nationale des
sciences politiques
75341 Paris Cedex 07

Strasbourg

Bibliothèque nationale et universitaire
67070 Strasbourg Cedex

Talence

Bibliothèque interuniversitaire de
Bordeaux
Droit et sciences économiques
33405 Talence

Gabon

Libreville

Bibliothèque nationale gabonaise
Libreville

German Democratic Republic

Berlin

Deutsche Staatsbibliothek
1080 Berlin

Jena

Friedrich-Schiller-Universität
Institut für Völkerrecht
69 Jena

Leipzig

Deutsche Bücherei
701 Leipzig

Germany, Federal Republic of

Bochum

Ruhr-Universität Bochum
Universitätsbibliothek
Postfach 102148
4630 Bochum 1

Bonn

Deutscher Bundestag
Bundeshaus-Bibliothek
53000 Bonn

Hamburg

Hamburgisches Welt-Wirtschafts-Archiv
2000 Hamburg 36

Heidelberg

Max Planck-Institut für
Ausländisches Öffentliches Recht
und Völkerrecht
D-6900 Heidelberg

Kiel

Institut für Internationales Recht an der
Universität Kiel
2300 Kiel

München

Bayerische Staatsbibliothek
8000 München 34

Berlin (West)

Freie Universität Berlin
Universitätsbibliothek
1000 Berlin 33

Staatsbibliothek Preussischer Kulturbesitz
1000 Berlin 30

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Ghana

Accra

Ghana Library Board
Accra

United Nations Information Centre
Liberia and Maxwell Roads
Accra

Legon

University of Ghana
Balme Library
Legon

Greece

Athènes

Bibliothèque de la Chambre des
députés hellénique
Ancien Palais Royal
Athènes

Bibliothèque nationale
Athènes

United Nations Information Centre
36 Amalia Avenue
Athens 119

Thessaloniki

Institute of International Public
Law and International Relations
Thessaloniki

Guatemala

Ciudad de Guatemala

Biblioteca Nacional
Ciudad de Guatemala

Guinea

Conakry

Bibliothèque nationale
Conakry

Guyana

Georgetown

University of Guyana
Library
Georgetown

Haiti

Port-au-Prince

Bibliothèque nationale de Port-au-Prince
Port-au-Prince

Honduras

Tegucigalpa

Universidad Nacional Autónoma
Tegucigalpa, D.C.

Hong Kong

Urban Council Libraries
City Hall
Edinburgh Place
Hong Kong

Hungary

Budapest

Országgyülési Könyvtár
Budapest V

Iceland

Reykjavík

Landsbókasafn Islands
Reykjavík

India

Bombay

University of Bombay
University Library
Bombay-1

Calcutta

National Library
Belvedere
Calcutta-700 027

Chandigarh

Panjab University
Library of the Department of Laws
Chandigarh

Delhi

University of Delhi
Delhi School of Economics
Ratan Tata Library
Delhi 110007

Dharwar

Karnatak University Library
Dharwar-580003

Hyderabad

Osmania University Library
Hyderabad 500007

Madras

Connemara Public Library
Madras-600003

New Delhi

Indian Council of
World Affairs Library
New Delhi 110001

Parliament Library
Lok Sabha Secretariat
Parliament House
New Delhi 110001

United Nations Information Centre
55 Lodi Estate
New Delhi 110003

Poona

Servants of India Society's Library
Poona-411004

Trivandrum

Kerala University Library
Trivandrum 1

Varanasi

Banaras Hindu University Library
Varanasi-221005

Indonesia

Jakarta

Dewan Perwakilan Rakjat Rupublik
Indonesia
Jakarta

National Library of Indonesia
Jakarta 1/22

Iran

Shiraz

Shiraz University
College of Arts and Science Library
Shiraz

Teheran

Library of the Majlis
Teheran

University of Tehran
Centre for Graduate International Studies
Library Faculty of Law and
Political Science
Tehran

United Nations Information Centre
Ave. Candhi
3rd Avenue, No. 43
Teheran

Iraq

Baghdad

United Nations Information Centre
House No. 167/1 Abu Nouwas Street
Baghdad

University of Baghdad
Central Library
Baghdad

Basrah

University of Basrah
Central Library
Basrah

Mosul

University of Mosul
Central Library
Mosul

Ireland

Dublin

National Library of Ireland
Dublin 2

Israel

Jerusalem

The Jewish National and
University Library
Jerusalem 91-000

The Knesset Library
Jerusalem

Italy

Firenze

Biblioteca Nazionale Centrale
50122 Firenze

Milano

Università Cattolica del Sacro Cuore
Biblioteca
20123 Milano

Padova

Università degli Studi di Padova
Istituto di Diritto Pubblico
Padova

Roma

Institut international pour l'unification
du droit privé
Bibliothèque
00184 Roma

Società Italiana per l'Organizzazione
Internazionale
00186 Roma

United Nations Information Centre
Palazzetto Venezia
Piazza San Marco 50
Rome

Trieste

Università degli Studi di Trieste
Istituto di Diritto Internazionale e
Legislazione Comparata
Trieste

Ivory Coast

Abidjan

Bibliothèque nationale
Abidjan

Jamaica

Kingston

The Institute of Jamaica
Library
Kingston

Mona

University of the West Indies
Library
Mona

Japan

Fukuoka City

Seinan Gakuin University
Library
Fukuoka 814

Kyushu United Nations Depositary
Library
Fukuoka City 810

Hiroshima

Hiroshima University Library
Hiroshima

Kobe

Kobe University
Research Institute for Economics and
Business Administration
Rokko, Kobe

Kyoto

Kyoto United Nations Depositary
Library
Kyoto

Mishima

Library
College of International Relations
Nihon University
2-231-145, Bunkyo-Cho
Mishima, Shizuoka 411

Nagoya

Aichi Prefectural Labour Centre
Library
Nagoya City

Sapporo

Hokkaido University
University Library
Sapporo 060

Sendai

Tohoku University Library
Kawauchi, Sendai-Shi

Tokyo

National Diet Library
Division of Interlibrary Services
Tokyo 100

University of Tokyo
General Library
Tokyo 113

United Nations Information Centre
Shin Aoyama Building Nishikan
1-1 Minami Aoyama 1-chome
Minato-ku, Tokyo 107

Jordan

Amman

University of Jordan
Library
Amman

Kenya

Nairobi

University of Nairobi
Library
Nairobi

United Nations Information Centre
P.O. Box 30218
Nairobi

Korea, Republic of

Seoul

Korea University
Library
Seoul

The National Assembly Library
Seoul

Kuwait

Kuwait

Kuwait University Libraries
Kuwait

Ministry of Foreign Affairs
The Library
Kuwait

Lebanon

Beirut

Bibliothèque nationale
Beirut

United Nations Information Centre
Information Service
P.O. Box 4656
Beirut

Lesotho

Maseru

University of Botswana, Lesotho and
Swaziland
Library
Roma-Maseru

United Nations Information Centre
Corner Hilton Road
Opposite Sanlam Centre
Kingsway, Maseru

Liberia

Monrovia

University of Liberia
Libraries
Monrovia

United Nations Information Centre
LBDI Building
Main Road, Congotown
Monrovia

Libyan Arab Jamahiriya

Benghazi

Garyounis University
Central Library
Benghazi

Tripoli

Central Bank of Libya
Economic Research Library
Tripoli

United Nations Information Centre
% UNDP
67-71 Turkiya Street
Tripoli

Luxembourg

Luxembourg

Bibliothèque nationale
Luxembourg

Madagascar

Antananarivo

Bibliothèque universitaire
Antananarivo

Centre d'information des Nations Unies
Antananarivo

Malawi

Zomba

Chancellor College Library
University of Malawi
Zomba

Malaysia

Kuala Lumpur

National Library of Malaysia
Kuala Lumpur

Malta

Valletta

Royal Malta Library
Valletta

Mauritius

Reduit

The University of Mauritius
Library
Reduit

México

México

Biblioteca Nacional
México 1, D.F.

Centro de Informacion de las
Naciones Unidas
Presidente Mazaryk No. 29, 7. piso
México 5, D.F. (Colonia Polanco)

Monterrey

Universidad Autonoma de
Nuevo Leon
Biblioteca Consuelo Meyer L.
Monterrey

Xalapa

Universidad Veracruzana
Instituto de Investigaciones y Estudios
Superiores Económicos y Sociales
Xalapa

Mongolia

Ulan-Bator

Gosudarstvennaia Publichnaia
Biblioteka MNR
Ulan-Bator

Morocco

Rabat

Université Mohamed V
Faculté des sciences juridiques,
économiques et sociales
Rabat Agdal

United Nations Information Centre
Angle Charia Mulay Hassan et
Zankat Assaii
(ex avenue Urbain-Blanc and rue
de Nimes)
Rabat

Nepal

Kathmandu

Tribhuvan University
Library
Kirtipur, Kathmandu

United Nations Information Centre
Lainchaur, Lazimpat
Kathmandu

Netherlands

Amsterdam

Universiteits-Bibliotheek
Amsterdam

's-Gravenhage

Koninklijke Bibliotheek
's-Gravenhage

Groningen

Rijksuniversiteit te Groningen
Bibliotheek
Groningen

Leiden

Rijksuniversiteit te Leiden
Bibliotheek
Leiden

Nijmegen

Katholieke Universiteit
Bibliotheek
Nijmegen

New Zealand

Auckland

Auckland Public Library
Auckland 1

Wellington

General Assembly Library
Parliament House
Wellington 1

Victoria University of Wellington
The Library
Wellington

Nicaragua

Managua

Biblioteca Nacional
Managua, D.N.

Niger

Niamey

Ecole nationale d'administration
de Niamey
Niamey

Nigeria

Ile - Ife

University of Ife Library
Ile - Ife

Lagos

National Library of Nigeria
P.M.B. 12626 Lagos

United Nations Information Centre
17 Kingsway Road, Ikoyi
Lagos

Nsukka

University of Nigeria
Nnamdi Azikiwe Library
Nsukka

Port Harcourt

University College Library
P.M.B. 5323
Port Harcourt

Zaria

Ahmadu Bello University
Kashim Ibrahim Library
Zaria

Norway

Bergen

Universitetsbiblioteket i Bergen
Bergen

Oslo

Det Norske Nobelinstitutt
Biblioteket
Oslo 2

Trondheim

Universitet biblioteket
N-7000 Trondheim

Pakistan

Islamabad

National Assembly
Library
Islamabad

Quaid-i-Azam University
Central Library
Islamabad

United Nations Information Centre
Bungalow No. 26
Ramna — 6/3, 88th Street
Islamabad

Jamshoro

University of Sind
Central Library
Jamshoro

Karachi

Karachi University
Library
Karachi 32

Lahore

Punjab University
Library
Lahore 2/12

Peshawar

University of Peshawar
Library
Peshawar 1

Panamá

Panamá

Biblioteca Nacional
Panamá

Papua New Guinea

Boroko

University of Papua New Guinea
The Library
Boroko

Port Moresby

United Nations Information Centre
P.O. Box 472
Towers Building
Musgrave Street, Ela Beach
Port Moresby

Paraguay

Asunción

Biblioteca Nacional
Asunción

Centro de Informacion de las
Naciones Unidas
Edificion City, 3er. Piso
Casilla Correo 1107
Estrella y Chile
Asunción

Perú

Lima

Cámara de Diputados
Biblioteca
Lima

Biblioteca Nacional
Lima

Centro de Información de las
Naciones Unidas
Av. Los Incas 580, San Isidro
Bosque El Olivar
Lima

Philippines

Davao City

University of Mindanao Library
Davao City

Iloilo City

Central Philippine University
University Libraries
Iloilo City

Makati

United Nations Information Centre
Metropolitan Bank Building
6813 Ayala Avenue
Makati, Rizal

Manila

National Library
Ermita
Manila

United Nations Information Centre
NEDA Building
106 Amorsolo Street
Legaspi Villag
Makati, Metro Manila

Quezon City

The Library
Batasang Pambansa
Quezon City, Metro Manila

University of the Philippines Library
Diliman
Quezon City 3004

Poland

Warszawa

Biblioteka Sejmowa
00-902 Warszawa

Polski Instytut Spraw
Miedzynarodowych
00-950 Warszawa

Biblioteka Narodowa
00-973 Warszawa

Portugal

Coimbra

Biblioteca Geral da Universidade
Coimbra

Lisboa

Biblioteca Nacional de Lisboa
Lisboa-5

Centro de Informação das
Naçoes Unidas
Rua Latino Coelho No. 1
Edificio Aviz Bloco Al-10°
1000 Lisboa

Puerto Rico

Ponce

Escuela de Derecho
Biblioteca
Universidad Católica de Puerto Rico
Ponce 00731

Río Piedras

Universidad de Puerto Rico
Biblioteca General
Río Piedras 00931

Romania

Bucuresti

Academiei Republicii Socialiste Romania
Biblioteca
Bucuresti

Centrul de informare al ONU
16 Rue Aurel Vlaicu
Bucuresti

Rwanda

Butare

Université nationale du Rwanda
Bibliothèque
Butare

Samoa

Apia

The Nelson Memorial Public Library
Apia

Saudi Arabia

Jeddah

King Abdulaziz University Library
Jeddah

Riyadh

State Public Library
Riyadh

Senegal

Dakar

Centre d'information des Nations Unies
Boîte postale 154
9, Allées Robert-Delmas
Dakar

Assemblée nationale
Secrétariat général
Section de la Bibliothèque
Dakar

Université de Dakar
Bibliothèque
Dakar

Sierra Leone

Freetown

University of Sierra Leone
Fourah Bay College
Library
Freetown

Singapore

Singapore

National Library
Singapore 6

Somalia

Mogadishu

University Institute of Somalia
Mogadishu

South Africa

Cape Town

Library of Parliament
Cape Town

South African Library
Cape Town 8001

Pretoria

State Library
Pretoria

Spain

Barcelona

Universidad de Barcelona
Facultad de Derecho
Biblioteca
Barcelona 17

Madrid

Biblioteca Nacional
Madrid

Escuela Diplomática
Ministerio de Asuntos Exteriores
Madrid

Valencia

Universidad de Valencia
Facultad de Derecho
Biblioteca
Valencia

Sri Lanka

Colombo

The Law Society of Sri Lanka
Colombo 12

United Nations Information Centre
Post Office Box 1505
202-204 Bauddhaloka Mawatha
Colombo 7

Sudan

Juba

University of Juba Library
P.O. Box 82
Juba

Khartoum

University of Khartoum
Library
Khartoum

United Nations Information Centre
Al Qasr Avenue, Street No. 15
Block 3, House No. 3
Khartoum East

Suriname

Paramaribo

Universiteit van Suriname
Instituut voor Internationaal Recht en
Internationale Betrekkinger
Paramaribo

Swaziland

Manzini

Swaziland National Library
Manzini

Sweden

Gothenburg

Gothenburg University Library
Gothenburg

Lund

Lunds Universitetsbiblioteket
S-221 03 Lund

Stockholm

Riksdagsbiblioteket
S-100 12 Stockholm

Uppsala

Dag Hammarskjöld Biblioteket
S-751 27 Uppsala 1

Switzerland

Bern

Eidgenössische Parlaments- und
Zentralbibliothek
CH-3003 Bern

Genève

Institut universitaire de hautes études
internationales
Bibliothèque
CH-1211 Genève 21

Bibliothèque publique et universitaire de
Genève
CH-1211 Genève 4

Information Service
United Nations Office at Geneva
Palais des Nations
CH-1211 Geneva 10

Syria

Damascus

Damascus University
United Arab Library
Damascus

Thailand

Bangkok

Information Service
Economic and Social Commission for
Asia and the Pacific
Sala Santitham, Rajadamnern Avenue
Bangkok 2

National Library
Bangkok 3

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PROCEEDINGS OF THE COMMITTEE ON NATURAL RESOURCES, EIGHT SESSION AND OF THE REGIONAL EXPERT GROUP MEETING ON THE FOLLOW-UP OF THE NAIROBI PROGRAMME OF ACTION ON NEW AND RENEWABLE SOURCES OF ENERGY Energy Resources Development Series No. 25 Sales No. 83.II.F.8	$19.00
ENERGY SUPPLIES FOR DEVELOPING COUNTRIES: ISSUES IN TRANSFER AND DEVELOPMENT OF TECHNOLOGIES Sales No. 80.II.D.3	$ 8.00
GUIDEBOOK ON BIOGAS DEVELOPMENT Sales No. 80.II.F.10	$11.00
CONSERVATION OF ENERGY IN THE CHEMICAL INDUSTRY Sales No. 80.II.E.19	$14.00
YEARBOOK OF WORLD ENERGY STATISTICS Sales No. 82.XVII.16 (cloth)	$60.00
ANNUAL BULLETIN OF COAL STATISTICS FOR EUROPE, 1980; Vol. 15 Sales No. 82.II.E.9	$ 8.00

BOOKS ON THE UNITED NATIONS AVAILABLE AT THE UNITED NATIONS BOOKSHOP

NUCLEAR WEAPONS Report of the Secretary-General (Autumn Press)	$ 4.95
MANY VOICES ONE WORLD Report of the International Commission for the Study of Communications Problems (UNIPUB)	$19.75
THE FUTURE OF THE WORLD ECONOMY A United Nations Study by Wassily Leontieff, et al. (Oxford University Press)(paper)	$ 6.95
GLOBAL DIALOGUE - THE NEW INTERNATIONAL ECONOMIC ORDER by Bhaskar P. Menon (Pergamon Press)	$ 8.50
NORTH-SOUTH. A PROGRAM FOR SURVIVAL The Report of the Independent Commission on International Development Issues under the Chairmanship of Willy Brandt (The MIT Press)(paper)	$ 5.95
COMMON CRISIS. North-South Co-operation for World Recovery. The Brandt Commission (The MIT Press)(paper)	$ 4.95
THE OBSTACLES TO THE NEW INTERNATIONAL ECONOMIC ORDER by Ervin Laszlo, Jorge Lozoya, A.K. Bhattacharya, Jaime Estevez, Rosario Green, Venkata Raman (Pergamon Press)	$ 8.50
BRIDGES ACROSS THE SOUTH Technical Cooperation Among Developing Countries by B.P. Menon (Pergamon Press)	$ 7.50
THE GROUP OF 77 - EVOLUTION, STRUCTURE; ORGANIZATION by Karl P. Sauvant (Oceana Publications, Inc.)	$10.00
GOOD FOOD FROM FAR AND WIDE Favorite family recipes from the United Nations International School	$ 9.00

How to order: Mail prepaid orders to United Nations Publications, Room DC2-853, New York, N.Y. 10017. Your co-operation in enclosing payment is requested. Should you fail to enclose payment, we will be unable to fill your order. Please make cheques payable to United Nations Publications.

PUBLIC INQUIRIES UNIT
DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INFORMATION
UNITED NATIONS, NEW YORK

Information on Inquiries that are Frequently Addressed to the Public Inquiries Unit

UNITED NATIONS PUBLICATIONS

The United Nations receives many requests from teachers, group discussion leaders and organizers of programmes on the United Nations, for large quantities of leaflets describing the Organization and its work. Because of a limited budget for such purposes, the United Nations is unable to meet heavy demands. However, basic pamphlets, as listed below, are normally in stock and may be ordered* at low cost from:

United Nations Publications
Room DC2-853
New York 10017

UN in Brief (DPI/630)	$10.00 per hundred copies .15 per copy
Charter of the United Nations and Statute of the International Court of Justice	$ 1.00 each .50 each in quantities of 25 or more
Declaration of the Rights of the Child (DPI/616)	$ 8.50 per hundred copies .10 per copy
Universal Declaration of Human Rights (DPI/15)	$ 3.00 per hundred copies .10 per copy
The International Covenants on Human Rights and Optional Protocol (OPI/627)	$ 8.00 per hundred copies .25 per copy
The International Bill of Human Rights 1948-1978 (OPI/598) Contains the texts of: Universal Declaration of Human Rights; the International Covenants on Human Rights and Optional Protocol	Single copy $ 1.50 For 25-50 copies $ 1.00 each For 51-100 copies $ 0.75 each For 101 copies and above $ 0.65 each

NOTE: No discounts are granted on bulk quantity orders.

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*Make remittance payable to the United Nations. Catalogue available upon request.

PROGRAMME GUIDES

The Public Inquiries Unit prepares special kits for the observance of United Nations Day, 24 October, and Human Rights Day, 10 December. These kits are available on request one month in advance of the day.

To obtain other special United Nations Day material, programme ideas or suggestions for organizing United Nations observances in your community, write to:

In the United States
United Nations Association of the USA
300 East 42nd Street
New York, N.Y. 10017

In Canada
Canadian Association for the United Nations
63 Sparks Street
Ottawa, Canada K1P 5A6

REPRODUCTION OF UNITED NATIONS PUBLICATIONS OR MATERIAL

For groups with limited budgets, United Nations material may be freely reprinted unless otherwise noted. Only a credit line is necessary. This enables a teacher or group leader to reproduce materials required for classroom or group distribution.

KEEPING INFORMED ON UNITED NATIONS ACTIVITIES

A subscription to the official monthly magazine - UN CHRONICLE - provides current information on United Nations activities. It also contains illustrations, feature articles, comprehensive summaries of major speeches and decisions of the Organs of the United Nations. Annual subscription is $20.00 (single copy: $3.00).

MAILING LISTS FOR FREE MATERIAL

The Public Inquiries Unit does not maintain a mailing list for press releases or other materials available for free distribution. General background material may be obtained by writing to the Public Inquiries Unit, United Nations, New York 10017.

Should you wish to receive announcements of United Nations sales publications, please write to: United Nations Publications, Rm. DC2-853, United Nations, New York 10017.

SOUND RECORDINGS

Sound recordings of unrestricted United Nations material are available at cost to the general public.

For information and current prices, please write to the Sound Recording Unit, Room 2B-90, United Nations, New York 10017.

UNITED NATIONS FLAG

The use and display of the United Nations Flag is governed by the United Nations Flag Code and Regulations which is distributed with the purchase of the Flag. There is no pledge to the United Nations Flag.

The United Nations Flag and Flags of Member States may be purchased in various sizes from the following distributors in the United States and Canada:

California

Paramount Flag Company[1]
450 Ninth Street
San Francisco, California 94103

New Jersey

Annin Flag Company
163 Bloomfield Avenue
Verona, New Jersey 07044
Tel: (201) 239-9000

New York

UN We Believe
60 East 42nd Street
New York, New York 10017
Tel: (212) 661-1772

Ace Banner and Flag Co.[1]
107 West 27th Street
New York, New York 10001
Tel: (212) 620-9111

UN Association of the USA
300 East 42nd Street 8th Floor
New York, New York 10017

Pennsylvania

Dettra Flag Co., Inc.
Oaks, Pennsylvania 19456

Canada

Dominion Regalia Limited
1550 O'Connor Drive
Toronto, Ontario M4B 2V3
Canada

Scythes and Co., Ltd.
128 Sterling Road
Toronto, Ontario M6R 2B7
Canada

Small silk flags (4" x 6") of the United Nations and of its Member States are available from the United Nations Souvenir Shop:*

	Flag only	With Stand
United Nations Flag and Flags of Member States (each)	$1.25[2]	$1.55[2]
Complete set of 158 flags of Member States plus UN Flag (159)	$198.75[2]	$278.75[2]

(Note: Stand for complete set is available separately for $50.00 each.)[2]

1/ Rental service available

2/ Plus postage. (Minimum postage for 1 to 10 flags with stands $2.00; for 10 to 15 flags with stands $2.50 and shipping charge for complete set with stand $15.00 - without stand $10.00).

* Mail prepaid orders to: United Nations Souvenir Shop, Room 414, United Nations, New York 10017.

FLAG ITEMS

UN Flag Chart	- Full colour poster, showing flags of Member States. Each flag - 1" x 1-1/2" E.83.I.5	$ 3.00
UN Flag Kit	- Includes paper flags of Member Nations and poles for mounting. E/F 81.I.14	$ 7.95
UN Flag Postcards	- Individual country flags, $0.15 each. Minimum order 10 cards. Special set of available flag postcards.	$17.50

Payment must accompany all orders sent to: United Nations Sales Section, Direct Mail, Rm. DC2-853, New York, New York 10017.

MUSIC

Official song of UN: While many songs have been written about the United Nations or on a related theme, there is no official song or hymn for the Organization.

The United Nations General Assembly has recognized the need for an official song and accordingly has reserved the right for its selection and adoption. To date, no decision has been taken on this matter. The United Nations does not maintain a file of musical compositions or accept suggestions for this purpose. Moreover, the United Nations does not publish music or have information on specific musical titles or publications.

"Hymn to the United Nations": In 1970, the late Maestro Pablo Casals and the late poet, W.H. Auden, responded graciously to the suggestion of the late Secretary-General U Thant that they collaborate in the writing of a new hymn to commemorate the Twenty-Fifth Anniversary of the United Nations. The Secretary-General explained that though the new song could not be formally adopted as the official anthem of the United Nations, he hoped it would be performed on appropriate occasions. The "Hymn to the United Nations" was first performed on 24 October - United Nations Day 1971, conducted by Maestro Casals at the United Nations. For information on the availability of the musical score and of the "Hymn", please write directly to the publisher, Alexander Broude, Inc., 225 West 57th Street, New York, N.Y. 10019 (Tel. (212) 586-1674). Both Maestro Casals and Mr. Auden agreed to donate royalties from the new hymn for the benefit of the United Nations International School.

Music of Member States: Requests for the national anthems, hymns and folk songs of Member States should be directed to the information offices or embassies of the Member States themselves as per attached list.

DRAMATIC MATERIAL

The United Nations has no prepared dramatic materials. Should you wish to prepare your own script, general background information on the United Nations is available upon request from the Public Inquiries Unit. Further information is available from the U.S. Committee for UNICEF, 331 East 38th Street, New York, N.Y. 10016, and from UNA-USA, 300 East 42nd Street, New York, N.Y. 10017.

TRANSLATION SERVICE

The United Nations translates only its own official documents and communications. A list of commercial sources for such services is not maintained. They are
..... listed in local telephone directories. The appropriate official source attached may also be in a position to assist in this regard.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

The United Nations has not published any study materials comparing the League of Nations with the United Nations. It is suggested that you consult publications on this subject available in your local library. The Yearbook of the United Nations 1946-47 describes the transfer to the United Nations of certain assets, functions and activities of the League. This publication may be consulted in many libraries,
..... including the United Nations depository libraries given on the enclosed list.

GUIDED TOURS OF THE UNITED NATIONS AND ADMISSION TO MEETINGS

Guided tours are conducted through the United Nations Headquarters seven days a week, including all holidays except Christmas Day and New Year's Day, from 9:00 a.m. to 4:45 p.m. Tours last about one hour and include information on the functions and aims of the United Nations and an explanation of the various exhibits, architecture and decor of the building. A leaflet giving details on guided tours is available on request. Children under five years of age are not admitted on tour.

Adults	$3.00
Students	
College and High School	$1.75
Jr. High and Grammar School	$1.25
Children	$1.25

It is possible to attend meetings in session of the various Councils or the General Assembly. Tickets are available free of charge on a first-come, first-served basis at the Information Desk in the public lobby of the General Assembly building. Because there is no advance schedule of meetings for any given day, tickets cannot be issued ahead of time. A schedule of meetings is published each day in The New York Times.

SPECIAL ARRANGEMENTS FOR GROUPS

Guided Tours: Groups of 15 or more should make reservations for their tours in advance through Tour Reservations (Tel. (212) 754-4440).

Meetings: Groups interested in attending an official meeting should apply to the Group Programme Unit, Visitors Section, United Nations, New York 10017, as far in advance as possible, so that tickets may be made available for any meetings which might be open to the public on the day of their visit. Students must be above the 9th grade and 14 years of age.

Briefings: For groups of 15 or more of the 9th Grade and above, making a special study of the United Nations, the Visitors Section will try to arrange briefings by members of the Secretariat on topics of special interest. Requests should be made well in advance to the Group Programme Unit (Tel. (212) 754-7710).

SPEAKERS

The United Nations does not arrange speaking engagements for representatives of the Member States. Such arrangements should be made by writing directly to the representatives.

Secretariat officials occasionally accept outside speaking engagements. These activities are in addition to their regular work schedule. Therefore, only a limited number of requests can be accommodated. If a group of at least 100 persons is able to cover all expenses of a speaker, invitations should be extended through the Group Programme Unit, Visitors Section, United Nations, New York 10017 (Tel. (212) 754-7710).

DELEGATES' DINING ROOM/COFFEE SHOP

The Delegates' Dining Room is open for lunch Monday through Friday. Visitors are seated before 11:45 a.m. or after 2:00 p.m. as tables become available. Reservations are required for groups of 15 or more persons and should be made as far in advance as possible through the Group Programme Unit, Visitors' Section, United Nations, New York 10017 (Tel. (212) 754-7710). Age requirement for group reservations is 12 years or over. Suit jackets are required.

The Coffee Shop, located in the Public Concourse, is open daily - seven days a week - from 9:30 a.m. to 4:00 p.m. Service is on a first-come, first-served basis.

BOOKSHOP

The United Nations Bookshop is open from 9:30 a.m. to 5:30 p.m., Monday through Saturday, and from 10.00 a.m. to 5:30 p.m. on Sunday. In the Bookshop, there are hundreds of books and periodicals issued in many languages by the United Nations and its related agencies. Postcards, United Nations calendars, records, slides, posters and children's books are also on sale.

STAMPS

The demand for cancelled foreign stamps is so great that it is not possible for the United Nations to make them available for distribution. However, the United Nations, through its Postal Administration, issued definitive and commemorative stamps on the activities of the United Nations and its related Specialized Agencies. For information about the United Nations stamps for postage and philatelic purposes, please write to the United Nations Postal Administration, P.O. Box 5900, Grand Central Station 10163, New York, New York 10017.

UNITED NATIONS INTERNATIONAL SCHOOL

General information on the activities of the School, including information on admission, courses of study, teaching opportunities at the School, etc., is available upon request from:

The Director
United Nations International School
24-50 Franklin D. Roosevelt Drive
New York, N.Y. 10010
(Tel. (212) 684-7400)

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

The United Nations does not compile a list of colleges or universities nor makes recommendations regarding such institutions.

THE INTERNATIONAL WHALING COMMISSION

The International Whaling Commission policy provides for the proper conservation of whale stocks and the orderly development of the whaling industry. Persons who wish to express support for the protection of whales or further information on this subject, may write to: International Whaling Commission, Room 514, Whitehall Place (East), London SW 1, England.

INFORMATION ON INDIVIDUAL COUNTRIES

The United Nations provides no information on individual Member States. Therefore, material on topics such as the following may be obtained from the information service or embassy of the country concerned:

- national customs, culture, peoples, costumes, holidays, flowers, coins and currency, music, anthems, hymns, travel information and maps, posters and other display materials on Member States;
- names of heads of State or Government;
- political, economic and social systems;
- immigration laws;
- unilateral foreign aid programmes;
- opinions of Member States on selected topics;
- verbatim texts of speeches made at the United Nations, first issued in provisional form, are not available for general distribution. These, in due course, are published in the Official Records of the United Nations, and are made available for sale from United Nations Publications, Room DC2-853, New York 10017. In the meantime, requests for recent texts of speeches should be addressed to the appropriate Permanent Mission to the United Nations (see attached list).

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CORRESPONDENCE WITH NATIONALS OF MEMBER STATES

The United Nations does not administer a pen pal programme. If you wish to
correspond with nationals of Member States, names and addresses of correspondents
abroad may be obtained from the information service or embassy of the country
concerned. A list of addresses of information services of Member States of the
..... United Nations is enclosed.

PASSPORTS, VISAS AND OTHER TRAVEL DOCUMENTS

The issuance of passports, other travel documents and visas to private individuals is exclusively a function of national authorities. The United Nations cannot be of assistance with such requests. They should be addressed to the Government of the person concerned.

STUDY, WORK AND TRAVEL IN MEMBER COUNTRIES

The United Nations offers no scholarship or student exchange programme. However, the UNESCO publication listed below contains information on study, travel and work in Member Countries. This publication is available for consultation in many public libraries, or may be ordered from: UNIPUB, 205 E 42nd Street, New York, N.Y. 10017.

Study Abroad, Volume XXIV, 1983-86 (a complete listing of opportunities for subsidized study and travel all over the world). $20.50